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University
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Exploring English language teaching approaches in Saudi Higher Education in the West Province.

Mohammed Salim AlHarbi

**A Thesis Submitted in Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy (PhD)**

School of Education

College of Social Sciences

University of Glasgow

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ABSTRACT

There is strong evidence in the literature that communicative interaction approaches may be an appropriate method of teaching English language skills, particularly speaking. There is a long-standing deficiency at the school level in the Saudi context; that is, the English language curricula at that particular level are inflexible, and passive learning and traditional, teacher-centred teaching methods are used. However, English language teaching is more collaborative, interactive and communicative at the university level, which may contribute to the development of EFL communicative competence.

This study aimed to interview fifty-five Saudi EFL students aged 18 to 21 in three institutions at the preparatory year at the university/college level with their 11 English teachers. These interviews sought to discover these participants' perceptions regarding the L2 teaching and learning approaches that might support the EFL students to use the TL in communicative interaction situations in the classroom. Prior to this, they were observed in their proficiency level classes, with their lessons being recorded on video. These classroom observations supported the interviews and scrutinised the communicative interaction and the TL practices taking place in the TL classroom, in order to identify congruence and incongruence in the participants' responses. These two methodological tools played an important role in achieving the aim of the study in exploring the use of the communicative interaction approaches and their activities in that stage.

The data of this investigation were qualitatively analysed to give findings related to the employment of the communicative interaction approaches to using the TL through communicative interaction activities (CIAs). The findings suggest that the generation of a collaborative learning environment and CIAs appeared to be suitable for learners of English as a foreign language at the level examined in the higher education institutions in this study. Among the benefits of a collaborative learning environment and the use of CIAs are the development of speaking skills, the reduction of anxiety about speaking in class, and increased enjoyment and motivation to learn English. It was concluded that activities such as game-based, peer discussion and learners' talk were suitable activities for EFL learners in Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA). These activities can also support the creation of an 'authentic' context, relevant to situations experienced by the EFL students in real life. It is therefore recommended that education policy makers in the KSA consider the

inclusion of these activities in the curriculum and English language teachers' application of these tasks using the TL in the language classrooms.

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AUTHOR'S DECLARATION

I declare that, except where explicit reference is made to the contribution of others, that this dissertation is the result of my own work and has not been submitted for any other degree at the University of Glasgow or any other institution.

Signature _____

Mohammed Salim AlHarbi

ABBREVIATIONS

KSA	Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
UK	United Kingdom
USA	United States of America
UAE	United Arab Emirates
T	Teacher
S	Student
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
ELT	English Language teaching
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
EGP	English for General Purposes
ENLS	English native language speakers
FL	Foreign Language
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
TL	Target Language
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
TBLT	Task-Based Language teaching
TBL	Task-Based Learning
CIAs	Communicative Interaction Activities
GTM	Grammar Translation Method
P-P-P	Presentation, Practice, Production
GBL	Game-based learning
PBL	Problem-based learning
CALL	Computer Assisted Language Learning
TTT	Teacher Talk Time
NFM	Negotiation for meaning

CF	Corrective Feedback
WO	Word Order
TE	Tenses
CA	Communication Apprehension
FNE	Fear of Negative Evaluation
PE	Peer Embarrassment
ANT	Anxiety towards New Topics
NS	Native Speaker
NNS	Non-Native Speaker
WTC	Willingness to communicate
TA	Thematic Analysis
GT	Grounded Theory
MOE	Ministry of Education
MOHE	Ministry of Higher Education
HE	Higher Education
SASE	Saudi Arabian schools English
CEC	Cambridge Examination Centre
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference
GCC	Gulf Cooperation Council
ARAMCO	Arabian American Oil Company
KAUST	King Abdullah University of Science and Technology
CDCO	Curriculum Department at the Central Office

Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Over the last three decades, considerable changes have taken place in second language (L2) learning and teaching through collaborative learning and communicative approaches. Richards (2006) points out that L2 learning has gone through several alterations in the last thirty years, which reflected and resulted in emergence of language communicative teaching approaches. Generally, languages may contribute to the enrichment of the linguistics and culture of any society, individual achievements, reciprocal comprehension, trading prosperity and global commercial and international citizenship (Department for Education and Skills, 2002). Learning a foreign language (FL) has become a primary factor in self-empowerment. It can facilitate intercultural communication, as well as encouraging individual development by opening up an extensive domain of information, thus contributing to cultural, social and professional life. Elyas and Grigri (2014) believe that learning English can facilitate and promote globalisation, which involves political, technological, cultural and social interchange among nations, and particularly individuals.

The context of the L2 classroom is generally, and necessarily, central to teachers' practice (Batstone, 2012). The language classroom may imply a variety of elements, such as decisions on methodologies taken by teachers, and teachers being involved with their students from situation to situation through communicating, interacting and from one lesson to another (Batstone, 2012). Discussing the L2 classroom-learning context, Walsh (2006) argues that it is very supportive if language teachers are aware of the relationship between opportunities for learning, learner talk, and interaction.

Interaction between teachers and students in the classroom as well as L2 activities assist in achieving the aims mentioned by Batstone (2012). The focus on meaningful and creative communication practice in recent approaches to language teaching has resonated strongly with practitioners. The Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) appeared in the 1970s (Richards, 2006), and is an approach that may support English as foreign language (EFL) students to use English (i.e. the target language) in the classroom. The use of the target language (TL) by teachers i.e., English, in this research, could be an important key to setting up communicative interaction and activities (CIAs). Relevant materials relating to

‘real life’ could help develop the learners’ TL efficiency (Ozverir and Herrington, 2011). In the same manner, teaching methods such as task-based language teaching and learning (TBLT/TBL) that also have arisen from the communicative approach may be supportive for developing TL communication skills (Chambers, 1999). These approaches and methods may assist EFL students to use the TL extensively in class.

On the other hand, some English teachers do not consider TL use in their language classroom as an important element of L2 learning due to certain perceived challenges. However, it could be argued that it is important that English teachers, particularly those at the university/college level, no matter their teaching experience, consider the use of the TL in their language classroom and the application of communicative approaches in their L2 classes. Language classrooms should be sources of TL input that results in interaction; the creation of such input in classroom interaction contributes to students’ engagement in learning the L2 (Ellis, 1990).

Furthermore, both the questions and the corrective feedback that are provided by English teachers towards their EFL learners are significant aspects of the L2 classroom (Alhaisoni, 2012; Lightbown and Spada, 2013; Scrivener, 2005). Investigations into interaction in the L2 class and its contribution emphasise the value of the use of the spoken L2, which contributes to the enhancement of the L2 learning process. Thus, it is useful to seek the perceptions of the individuals who are most closely involved in the L2 classroom (teachers and students) regarding the use of the communicative approach and CIAs using the TL, as well as capturing what may be of interest (e.g. learning and teaching processes) in that regard in that particular site.

This current study investigates the L2 learning and teaching strategies utilised in the language classroom at the university/college level with orientation-level EFL students in the western region of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA). The study aimed to determine teaching approaches and whether communicative interaction activities and teacher approaches using the TL can contribute to supporting learners to be involved and engaged in the L2 classroom lessons.

Political, economic and social relations between the KSA and other countries are increasing and this has led to a growth in the importance of learning foreign languages, and in the number of state and private institutions that provide language education, as will be

discussed in Chapter 2. Skills in foreign languages, particularly English, give access to the technological and scientific developments which are crucial in the current knowledge society (Kaşlıoğlu, 2003). Further, the ability to speak English competently is viewed as an asset in terms of career opportunities in the highly competitive job market in KSA.

1.2 The motivation for the study and filling the research gap

I was motivated to undertake this study for a number of reasons. First, I wished to investigate L2 learning and teaching processes at university/college level, and whether teachers' approaches helped or hindered learners to communicate in the TL. It was hoped that the findings of this research might offer ways of overcoming those hurdles, which appeared to prevent learners from engaging fully in learning English for communication in the classroom and in informal situations outside. Second, I wished to identify instances of good practice, which could serve as a model for teaching and learning across the HE sector in KSA.

The L2 learning and teaching environments at universities and schools may differ regarding the process of English language learning and teaching and this '*may have overwhelming consequences on the learning process in so many ways*' (Alshehri, 2016, p. 410). The school stages, particularly the secondary school level as highlighted by scholars such as Rabab'ah (2005) and Al-Seghayer (2005, 2007, 2011) appear to have deficiencies and may present obstacles to the English learning and teaching process (Elyas and Al Grigri, 2014) in terms of assisting students to gain fluency in using the TL. On the other hand, the university/college level may have a more advanced level of the L2 learning and teaching process through the use of communicative approaches, interaction and other L2 teaching strategies and may offer a more efficient setting for learning English. Therefore, I formed the opinion that it would be interesting and worthwhile to target this level and investigate what approaches were used to teach English and what students and teachers found helpful in promoting communicative interaction.

1.3 Contributions of the research

This study makes both an academic and practical contribution. The academic contribution lies in the fact that, to my knowledge, there is little prior literature on the use of communicative interaction-based activities in English language teaching in KSA when this

study was undertaken. Hence, there is a gap in the research, which the present study aims to address.

Furthermore, the research makes a practical contribution as the conclusions may encourage English teachers, EFL students and curriculum planners in Saudi Arabia to consider the current teaching methods used in the English language classroom with a view to consolidating communicative approaches. The findings of this research may also offer the Ministry of Education (MOE) and Ministry of Higher Education (MOHE) and the policy makers in Saudi Arabia an in-depth understanding of English language learning and teaching at the university/college level. The findings may provide useful evidence that may be used at the school planning stage to fill the gap between the two stages, secondary and higher education.

The aim of the study was also to enable educational establishments to assess and evaluate their current English language learning and teaching policies with regard to teachers' professional development to support teaching students English and achieving communicative competence (Abu Mraheel, 2004). In this respect, I was requested by the three institutions visited in the investigation to write a report on the fieldwork, its results, and recommendations drawn from it.

1.4 The purpose of the study

This study aimed to explore the approaches used in English language teaching classes in the Saudi Arabian university/college context. I was particularly interested to examine those practices which might develop the use of the learners' TL in the EFL classroom. The research aimed to obtain the participants' (students' and teachers') perceptions of the approaches used in the classroom and their effects on communicative interaction in English language learning and teaching in the preparatory year of the university/college where the students are learning English for general purposes (EGP), as identified by Alshehri (2016).

Additionally, this research focuses on the development of a specific productive skill, that is, speaking, because as Rabab'ah (2005) argues, the majority of Saudi EFL students usually have a deficiency in that particular skill, therefore an investigation of the

university/college level was felt to be desirable, given the need for students to achieve a certain level of proficiency at the end of their preparatory year.

The research also aimed to identify favourable, unfavourable and challenging aspects that may arise in the language classroom, which may support or constrain the development of speaking skills. Language teaching and learning aspects investigated included student English language errors while speaking and corrective feedback, language anxiety, self-confidence, motivational interactive activities and the materials used for this purpose.

Further, this research also gives a view of the language classroom in which the practice of communicative approaches and the interaction and collaborative learning among the EFL students in group activities take place. The observations of the EFL classroom sought to capture the behaviours, incidents and occasions of the use of the TL in class and what prompted them. These observations took place in the language classrooms of the participating institutions prior to each group interview with students from each class. Subsequently, the English teachers were interviewed. The observations aimed to identify language teaching and learning strategies that occurred in the class before highlighting any key points that could be discussed in the interviews.

1.5 The research questions

With a view to attaining the aim of this research, the following questions were developed:

- 1- What are the main approaches to teaching and learning in universities and colleges in Saudi Arabia?
- 2- How do students and teachers perceive these approaches to English language teaching in supporting English learning, particularly development of the use of the TL?
- 3- Which practices of the EFL learning and teaching in the classrooms appear to support or inhibit the students in practising communicative interaction activities using English?

1.6 The study and its structure

This research's participants comprised eleven English language teachers of mixed origin: native speakers 'NS', non-native speakers 'NNS' Arab, and non-native speakers 'NNS'

non-Arab, with a range of teaching experience who agreed to be observed and take part in interviews for this study. Also interviewed were fifty-five students of different proficiency levels: pre-A1 to B1 based on the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) from eleven English classrooms. The lessons in these language classrooms mostly involved spoken communication skills, which included communicative interaction activities as well as other skills such as reading and listening, as this is a part of the institutions' policies.

The interviews were intended to be the main source of the data, as I believed that the feedback, comments and perceptions of the respondents would play an important role in highlighting phenomena of L2 teaching and learning in context of the orientation year in Saudi Arabia HE institutions. This intent was that the participants would speak spontaneously and naturally and be very open in their interview responses, having made the observations to illuminate elements of L2 learning and teaching which could be used as prompts in the interviews, as discussed previously, if necessary. Thus, the observation analysis was conducted to support the interviews data and performed the function of triangulation.

The research was conducted within a qualitative paradigm, which was considered best suited for the study, as it was exploratory (Creswell, 2009). The findings from the analysis of the data, therefore emerged through triangulation of the methods used for collecting the data, leading to a saturation approach, which aimed to ensure the credibility, dependability, transferability and validity of this study (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Clont, 1992; Seale, 1999; Winter, 2000; Golafshani, 2003; Trochim, 2005; Stavros and Westberg, 2009). This will be further discussed in greater detail in Chapter Four, the methodology chapter. After this first chapter, which introduces the research, outlines the research problem and my motivation, the structure and organisation of this thesis are as follows:

Chapter Two presents a description of the context of this investigation (KSA), where the research was undertaken. First, it provides brief details of the expansion of the English language around the globe and the position of KSA among the three circles that Kachru et al. (2009) characterise. It moves on to discuss the historical view of English language teaching and learning, its introduction in KSA during the 20th century and its development through several processes, while noting changes it has undergone in the Saudi education system. The policy in the KSA with regard to education in general and English language

teaching in particular is discussed in this chapter to show how the MOE and the decision makers control the education system in a top-down policy.

Chapter Two also gives a clear picture of the importance of the English language in the Saudi context and how it is taught and learnt with an emphasis on the religion (Islam), culture and norms of the 'home' context, while encouraging the learning of a L2 (e.g. English). It goes on to discuss English teachers and EFL learners in KSA and challenges they may encounter in the process of the English language learning and teaching.

The third chapter encompasses a review of literature relevant to this research, which is concerned with English language teaching and learning and classroom strategies. These strategies relate to theories of teaching and learning approaches, which are applied in the language classroom through methods such as communicative approaches, for example, CLT, TBLT/TBL and the post-method teaching. However, traditional teaching approaches such as grammar translation method ('GTM') also used in some of the language classrooms within the context investigated in are also discussed.

Moreover, the extensive production of TL from English teachers in the L2 classroom, which may encourage the EFL students to use English to communicate (Liu, 2008; Turnbull, 2001), and may generate communicative interaction and student engagement, will be discussed. Practices such as group activities, for example, role-plays, game-based activities and learners' talk, and negotiation for meaning will therefore be discussed. In addition, these activities cannot be separated from relevance of the materials and pace that should also be considered in these practices. The origins of and differences between the English teachers, that is NS or NNS may be a key factor to either facilitating the use of translanguageing in the L2 classroom or promoting the use of the TL and is also discussed.

Chapter 3 will also address affective aspects in relation to the communicative situations in the classroom, as they could be considered relevant to this study in terms of the EFL learners' attitudes, comfort (language anxiety and confidence) in using the TL and the motives for these. Therefore, the review of the literature relevant to this study also highlights language anxiety and confidence, which may act as obstacles to the EFL learners' use or avoidance of the TL and interaction in the L2 class. This chapter then moves on to discuss the EFL errors and error correction, particularly the errors that Arab or Saudi EFL speakers may make when they are involved in a verbal discussion in English.

The fourth chapter of this thesis is concerned with the methodology adopted in gathering the data and their analysis. It also presents the measures taken to ensure that I carried out the research respecting all relevant ethical considerations. It justifies the approach of the research, which is qualitative, as I believed that the selection of such an approach might assist in the analysis of data according to the respondents' (learners and teachers) perceptions of the way they were taught and use of the TL in the L2 classroom. This is achieved by using two data collection instruments, which comprised interviews with the students and their mainstream teachers, and classroom observations that investigated the learning and teaching practices in the teachers' L2 classrooms.

The description of the analysis of the data in this chapter demonstrates the interaction, use of English, behaviours and communication in the classroom. I applied thematic analysis, using Braun and Clarke's (2006) model in order to generate, refine and report the themes and the findings that emerged on the language learning and teaching aspects of the classroom. Moreover, steps taken to ensure the validity and reliability and limitation of this study are also highlighted.

Chapters Five, Six and Seven present the findings of this research. In these three chapters, the communicative interaction and activities which contributed in EFL classes to the use of the TL in their groups with peers and sometime individually via the teachers' engagements are discussed. The rationale for three separate chapters is because of the richness of the data and I felt that it is important that the findings of each component part of the research, that is observation and interviews with teachers and a sample of their students should be presented separately so that links could be made. Secondly, I believed that each group of respondents' voices is considered significant.

Chapter Five presents the beliefs of the EFL students regarding the English language teaching and learning in the context of the preparatory year at the university/college level and how they saw the development of their use of English. It addresses the collaborative L2 learning environment in the L2 classroom at the university and the point of view of the EFL students regarding what they perceived as effective L2 learning and teaching. It discusses the EFL students' preferences towards their choice of English teachers. Teaching styles, strategies and approaches employed to allow communicative interaction to take place and make the learners use the TL in class are described from the learners' point of

view. The chapter further discusses the challenges that the EFL learners claimed they may face in these communicative situations, such as errors, types of language anxiety and the confidence that may support their participation in class.

Chapter Six focuses on the English language teachers' perceptions of the teaching approaches used and which kind of approach they believed might engage the EFL students in the CIAs used in the class and how this may impact the use of the TL. Chapter Six also discusses English teachers' views of the types of strategies that they believe as beneficial and successful in engaging EFL learners in communicative and active learning situations and motivating through CIAs. It moves on to present the verbal errors that the English teachers identified which their EFL students make when using the TL and how they dealt with them.

Chapter Seven discusses the findings of the observations regarding English language learning and teaching behaviours and events, which took place in the L2 language classroom among the English teachers and their Saudi EFL students. This chapter presents some support for a number of the interview responses in Chapters Five and Six from the participants (e.g. students and teachers), or contradictions to those perceptions.

Chapter Seven also discusses the English teachers' actions to support the students' engagement in class in terms of using the TL and how English teachers' backgrounds appeared to play an important role in that respect. This chapter discusses the relation between the proficiency levels of the English students and potential their engagement in class. It gives details of the way some teachers encourage students to use the TL fully and reduce the frequency of using L1, and the opposite in other cases. It then moves on to present the pedagogical function of the English teaching approaches observed in the L2 class at the university/college level and their apparent impacts on the learners' engagement, collaborative and interaction. It provides examples of the CIAs observed in the language classroom and support for the EFL students' use of English in class associated with various types of activities and materials, the pace of using these activities and their relevance to the EFL students' real-life situations. The observations present a view of the culture of the TL use observed in the EFL classroom. It then moves on to present the errors of the students observed and the corrective feedback that teachers used to correct these errors. Furthermore, it demonstrates the persistence of certain English teachers in the face of the EFL students' reluctance to use of the TL. This relates to the

discussion in the interviews of how teachers perform in order to support and encourage speaking in the language classroom.

Chapter Eight, which is the last chapter of this study, draws the conclusion of this study by referring back to the research questions, aligned with the findings of this study in the three findings chapters. The chapter discusses L2 teaching approaches and methods, activities and materials that may involve the students in communicative settings so that they use the TL in the classroom. The recommendations for further studies and how the study can contribute to the development of English language teaching policy in the Saudi context at MOE will also be presented in this chapter.

The Saudi context investigated in this study will be discussed in the following chapter, which will examine the historical view of English language teaching and learning in the context, its origins and its development.

Chapter Two: Context of the Study (Saudi Arabia)

2.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the history of the English language in the KSA. It looks at the periods that English language teaching and learning went through and how it was introduced into the Saudi education system during those years. It addresses the education system in the Saudi context and the education policy in the country. It should be noted that the education system in Saudi Arabia is gender-segregated due to the Islamic and cultural beliefs in the country (Baki, 2004). Subsequently, the chapter focuses on the significance of the English language in the Saudi context, the role of English in the education system and how it is learnt and taught. It discusses the English language materials, approaches and methods in the Saudi context, focusing on male learners using EFL at several levels (pre-A1, A1, A2 and B1) at university. It presents the three institutions visited in this study (University 1, College 1, and College 2) and elucidates their role in the L2 (English) learning and teaching, visions and objectives that they (i.e. the institutions) aim to achieve (please see further details of institutions in appendices E2, E3 and E4). The rationale behind this chapter is to provide a context of where the study is conducted so that the reader will be able to see how the research questions arose and to situate the study.

With the spread of globalisation, English has grown in importance, particularly in the areas of business and education (NourAldeen and Elyas, 2014). The requirement for English in international communication between non-English speaking countries has also led to the rapid spread of English globally (NourAldeen and Elyas, 2014). English is not only related to the cultures of native speakers' countries (Canada, the United Kingdom, New Zealand, Australia and the United States), but is also spoken as a second language in many countries such as Nigeria, Pakistan and India, and as a FL in others (e.g., in Saudi Arabia, China and Japan).

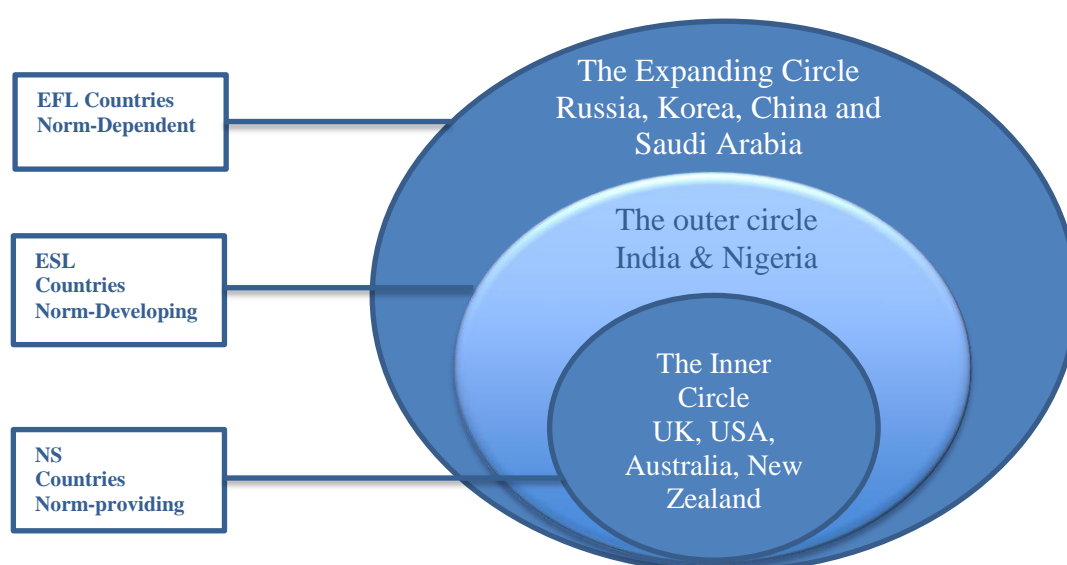
The growth of the British Empire was instrumental in spreading the English language in many countries and this had a strong influence on many other countries in terms of exposure to the English language. Crystal (2003) claims that in the 19th century, British imperialism dispersed English around the world and that its influence has persisted. Languages become global for one reason: the power of those who speak it and four centuries ago, political power created and expanded the British Empire (Crystal, 2003).

Subsequently, the authority became technological, linked to the industrial revolution, and this authority appears to have continued to the present day.

According to Kachru (1992d), the main diaspora of English was the migration of English native language speakers (ENLS) primarily from Scotland, England and Ireland to Australia, North America, New Zealand and South Africa, where it developed over time, as mentioned above. The other diaspora resulted from the British colonisation of countries in Africa and Asia, such as India, Ghana and Nigeria (Kachru, 1992d), which led to the emergence of 'Englishes', that is, varieties of English as a second language (ESL). The majority of former British colonies still use English as a L2 and English is widely used in the government and the judiciary.

Kachru et al. (2009) describe three types of English as the three concentric circles of English, also known as the global English circle model. The inner circle represents the original sources of English, i.e. the United Kingdom, USA, Australia and New Zealand. The outer circle model refers to those countries where the English language was brought through colonisation in the second diaspora; among these are Malaysia, India, and several African countries. The final circle comprises countries in which English as a foreign language (EFL) is used but in which English did not have any historical role. This refers to the remainder of the countries around the world, such as Korea, China, and Saudi Arabia (see Figure 2.1 below).

Figure 2. 1 The global English circle model, adapted from (Kachru, 1985).



In the Arabian Gulf region, the six nations that make up the present-day Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) have an identical imperialistic history (Charise, 2007). From the 16th to the 18th centuries, much of the region now comprising the Gulf was part of the Ottoman Empire (Charise, 2007). Arabic-speaking Bedouin nomads, organised according to traditional hierarchies, lived in the mainly deserted lands (AbuKhalil, 2004). According to Butt (1995) the fall of the Ottoman Empire in the 18th century offered European powers the chance to take control of trade and commercial routes throughout the Gulf, and cultural interchange.

European countries and Great Britain more specifically, took an interest in the Gulf at that time primarily because of its strategic position on trade routes to India, but apart from this; they could see little benefit in colonising this deserted region (Goldschmidt, 2005). Therefore, the Gulf states were never became colonies *per se*, although in 1820 Britain entered into a trade agreement with the coastal state of Oman in order to ensure access to the waterways used by British merchants in their trade with India (Barbee and Stork, 1975). Thereafter, Dubai, Abu Dhabi which both currently encompass part of the United Arab Emirates (UAE), as well as Bahrain signed identical convention in 1835, followed by Kuwait in 1899, and Qatar in 1916 (Charise, 2007). Furthermore, Al-Rasheed (2005) reports that in 1915, Saudi Arabia signed a similar treaty with Great Britain, albeit subsequent to a military conflict between the two countries.

Saudi Arabia's geographical position – a crossroads between West and Northern Africa, Europe, India, and Asia – ensured that the region was constantly in contact with other languages and cultures. Before the 19th century, Arabic was the common language (Abuhamdia, 1988), but the advent of the British in the region meant that English became increasingly used as a lingua franca, although it never supplanted Arabic (Al-Khatib, 2006). All aspects of life in the KSA, including the education system, are governed by Islam. Islam places a high value on knowledge and there have been many well-known Muslim scholars in many fields. Arabic is the language of the Qur'an, and the official language of Saudi Arabia, where it is used in communication at all levels (Ahmed, 1993).

Figure 2. 2 GCS, (2012) Map of KSA



2.2 Historical view of the English language and its start in the KSA

English was introduced into most of the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries in the 19th century as a result of the British trade interests (Charise, 2007). However, it is unclear how English was established in KSA since it has never been under European or American rule (Al-Seghayer, 2005). It was, indeed, the Saudi government who introduced EFL to its country, in the realisation that it was necessary for Saudis to be able to communicate in English with the outside world. The rapid growth of petroleum production and revenues increased the importance of EFL programmes aiming to train Saudis for positions in the government as well as in the Arabian American Oil Company 'ARAMCO' (Al-Seghayer, 2005). This led to the first high-ranking company to launch English language teaching (ELT) in KSA in 1933 (Mahboob and Elyas, 2014). By the late 1970s, there was a high number of English-speaking expatriate workers in companies, hospitals and other sectors in the country, and a few Arab workers with a good command of English (Al-Braik, 2007).

Although there was no formal education system in KSA until the early 1920s and a high percentage of the population was illiterate, there is an agreement among researchers that ELT formally started in 1928 at intermediate level *'after the establishment of the*

Directorate of Education in 1923' (Al-Seghayer, 2011, p. 8). ELT was first introduced into the curriculum in Saudi Arabia in 1953, with a syllabus adopted from Egypt (Al-Subahi, 1988). However, this syllabus was soon found to be unsuitable for the Saudi learners' requirements, as it was no longer meeting the Saudi education system's requirement nor was it convenient to its principal interests (Al-Subahi, 1988).

In the 1960s, English instruction had become more formal and was introduced into the secondary level curriculum (Javid et al., 2012). Moreover, Al-Seghayer (2005) reports that a comprehensive English curriculum first appeared in the 1960s and there was eight hours of English teaching a week at both intermediate and secondary school levels. In the 1970s, the curriculum remained unchanged but the teaching hours were reduced to six a week; nevertheless, the reasons for this reduction were not specified. However, according to Al-Subahi (1988), this programme was not appropriate for learners' linguistic requirements. This was replaced by a new English programme (Saudi Arabian schools English 'SASE') in 1980, as it seemed to achieve the goals of the Saudi students' needs as Al-Subahi suggests. Subsequently, Macmillan, a British publishing company, took on the role of developing the ELT materials for Ministry of Education (MOE) schools until the 1980s (Javid et al., 2012). Macmillan introduced a programme called Saudi Arabian Schools' English in intermediate and secondary schools. However, they might not have been the suitable for the needs of Saudi learners at that particular time and that particular context. The number of teaching hours per week was six until 1982 when it was reduced to four, as it remains at both stages.

Subsequently, another project in the 1990s was created to design appropriate material for this specific context developed by native-speaking (NS) experts in ELT and named as 'English for Saudi Arabia' (Al-Seghayer, 2011). This project was launched by the MOE who issued a series of textbooks for both school levels (Intermediate and Secondary) and officially supervised by King Fahd University of Petroleum and Minerals for which these experts were working. However, these textbooks received criticism for omitting certain features of Saudi society and culture such as famous people, and historical events and places (Al-Mulhim, 2000). The MOE intended bringing English in the primary schools at the sixth grade in the primary school level, with two hours of instruction per week. This modification according to AlSobaihi (2005) was replaced due to the certainty that the majority of Saudi Arabian high schools and colleges' graduates have low proficiency in FL language skills. Therefore, in an attempt to improve English learning in the early 21st

century, English began to be taught from the fourth grade (i.e. primary four at the primary school level), for children aged at 10 years old for two hours per week at this level (Elyas, 2008).

Similarly, English has existed at all stages of higher education such as universities, military academies, and technical and vocational institutes from the time they were established in KSA. King Fahad University was the first to adopt English as a language of instruction when it was founded in 1975, as did the King Abdullah University of Science and Technology (KAUST) on its foundation in 2009. The majority of the scientific and medical colleges in the other 36 Saudi universities also use English extensively.

2.3 Education policies in the Saudi context

In the United States, the tragic events of 9/11 were represented by the media and official authorities as being attributable to the education system in KSA producing Islamic extremists (Elyas, 2008). Due to these accusations (Elyas, 2008), it has been suggested that pressure was brought to bear on the Muslim religious authority in KSA by the American government to adjust the education curriculum, in the belief that the Islamic educational system was at the root of those terrorist attacks (Karamani, 2005a). In response to negative views of the Saudi educational system policy, Saudi officials met with conflicting opinions (Elyas, 2008). In 2002, Al-Sharq Al-Awsat newspaper interviewed the then Minister of the Interior, Prince Naif bin AbdulAziz, concerning the changes in the education policy, and he stated that he had confidence in the curriculum but would never reject educational developments provided they did not conflict with the principles of the country (Elyas, 2008). Crown Prince Sultan bin AbdulAziz in the same year affirmed that the education policy would not be changed, particularly regarding religious instruction, and any demands for change from a foreign party (referring to the United States), would be considered as interference in the sovereignty of the country and its stability (Elyas, 2008).

However, despite the strong stand from Saudi officials against American demands with regard to the education policy, a surprising statement was issued by the Prince of Makkah province, Khaled Al-Faisal, to the effect that the Saudi curriculum had a minor issues in this respect and reform was needed (Elyas, 2008). This sentiment was echoed by the Saudi Ambassador to the United States, who stated '*Are we working hard to change mind-sets that encourage prejudice and intolerance? Yes, absolutely.*' (Al-Faisal, 2006). Thus, KSA

started to consider reforming its education policy in order to start a new era in Saudi Arabia; part of this reform was to introduce the English language in primary schools (Elyas, 2008). This links to the discussion above about the English teaching at the primary school level which indicates that the MOE launched and shifted the placement of the English learning and teaching from the sixth grade level to the forth, with the intention to developing the Saudi learners' proficiency in English, as suggested earlier.

Only official bodies in KSA, such as the Ministry of Education, have the power to make decisions on matters concerning the education system (Mahboob and Elyas, 2014). Schools, colleges and universities, as well as others who implement the policies, can also contribute to their development (McKay, 1993). Regarding the education policy in general and particularly language teaching, a top-down, centralised policy prevails in KSA, with all decisions made by the governing elite. The Foreign Minister of Saudi Arabia, Prince Saud Al-Faisal was interviewed at a press conference in May 2006 and asked about educational materials in general and ELT materials in particular. He replied, *'the education reforms in Saudi Arabia go beyond textbook rewriting. They go into teacher training and the whole system of education is being transformed from top to bottom'* (Al-Faisal, 2006). A top-down policy, or, as Johnson (2004, p. 77) calls it, a *"state control model"* is in effect, with Ministry of Education officials having the authority to make decisions on language teaching (Johnson, 2013). This policy involves the curriculum, materials and teaching methods and material used in the classroom (Nunan, 1989).

In addition, the tenth developmental plan from 2015-2019 that the authorities in the KSA released in 2015 included twenty-four objectives which presented the countries' values, concerns and improvement in the country (please see appendix E1 for education and higher education objectives).

2.4 The current role of English in the education system in KSA

The discovery of oil in the Arab region, particularly in KSA, in the 20th century attracted the attention of several international companies and this led to the growth of ELT and learning in that area (Javid et al., 2012). Many Saudi learners wished to develop their level of education by learning English to keep pace with the growth of technology globally, and for positive career enhancement, and this needed English language practice. Therefore, their parents were often prepared to cover all expenses regarding their children's studies in

English schools in English speaking countries such as the UK, USA and Australia (Bersamina, 2009), as there is a clear motivation on the part of parents for their children to become proficient in English.

English has become also a vital component of education in Saudi Arabia in recent years in the wake of globalisation and the increasing use of technology such as the Internet in all domains (Elyas, 2008). The Saudi government has tried to improve the quality of education by focusing on English language teaching in the school curriculum and through the Custodian of the Two Holy Mosques King Abdullah Bin Abdulaziz scholarship, a large-scale scheme to send students for higher education in colleges and universities overseas (Shemary, 2008). Therefore, a thorough knowledge of the English language has become a prerequisite for the younger generation of Saudis, for their higher education as well as for their careers, which could lead to a reformulation of educational language policy in the Saudi context. In the following section, the education and the language policies will be further discussed, highlighting their impact in the study context, in particular with regard to cultural, religious and political factors.

2.5 The significance of the English language in the Saudi context

English plays a large part in Saudis' daily lives, as it is present in their workplaces, and in their entertainment such as video games, television, and so forth, and it is the dominant language in scientific fields such as medicine and technology (Elyas, 2008). Although Arabic is the official language of communication in the country, use of the English language is widespread. For example, at airports and along highways, there are many posters and signs written in English. Major private companies in Saudi Arabia (e.g. ARAMCO and SABIC) also use English in their work and their staff frequently use English as a medium of instruction. Banks, airports, travel agencies, and a number of large supermarkets have their printed materials and documents in English, as does Saudi Airlines, in whose offices communication is usually in English. Thus, knowledge of English is essential in Saudi Arabia in order to keep pace with economic growth. The next section will address the ways in which English is learned and taught and what efforts have been made over the years to reach the level of English needed to cope with globalisation, despite issues which have arisen in this respect.

2.6 The modality of English teaching and learning in Saudi Arabia

Concerns were raised by some Islamic scholars that the introduction of English classes in primary schools in KSA could potentially westernise Saudi children. However, it was suggested by educators that English does not represent a threat to the culture or language of any country where it spreads, unless the inhabitants of that country choose to let them (Mahboob and Elyas, 2014). Therefore, the Saudi Ministry of Education holds that learning English is unlikely to drive Saudis to become westernised or to assume beliefs incompatible with Islam (Ministry of Education, General Directorate of Curricula, 2002, in Alamri, 2008). Moreover, in terms of religion, Saudis' positive attitudes towards English or learning any other extra L2s are justifiable. Several verses in the Holy Qu'ran and hadith (sayings of the Prophet Mohammad) encourage language learning, regardless of to whom the language belongs. For example, Prophet Mohammed, peace be upon him, said *'He whoever learns other people's language will be secured from their cunning'* (Mahboob and Elyas, 2014). This Hadith started to be, as Mahboob and Elyas suggest, the stimulation for the learning of the English language as well as of some other languages in the Saudi context. Although this Hadith had been repeated over centuries, its import started to be recognised only recently. Furthermore, Karmani (2005a) and (2005b) holds that Islamic contexts are in its essence linked to English contexts through the vast community of English-speaking Muslims. Mahboob and Elyas (2014) quote Sura Al Hujuraat (a chapter in the Holy Quran) to discuss that even in the Holy Qur'an diversities in culture and language are noted and welcomed:

Oh mankind, We have created you all out of male and female and made you into tribes and nations, so that you may come to know one another. Verily, the noblest of you in the sight of Allah is the one who is most deeply conscious of Him. Sura (chapter) Al Hujuraat (49) Verse (13).

Mahboob (2009) and Weber (2011) argue that Arabic words were integrated into English, so English could be considered as 'an Islamic language', which is likely similar to a Christian and Judeo one. Moreover, Abuhamdia (1988, p. 34) argues that such positive attitudes come from the fact that the Arabic has *'its distinctive ideologically faith-based integrative and unifying role among Arabs'* (Abuhamdia, 1988, p. 34); thus, it would not be weakened by the use of English in science and development.

Although research into attitudes towards EFL or varieties of English in the Saudi context is limited, the findings of these studies are helpful as they provide an overall picture of how EFL is perceived and utilised, which will be discussed below. These studies also address the core areas, ideological and sociolinguistic, which lead to understanding the EFL profile in KSA in general.

Initially, Abed Alhaq and Smadi (1996) examined the attitudes towards EFL of 1,176 Saudi university students, representing all Saudi universities at that time. The main finding was that English was not seen as presenting a threat to Islamic and Arabic culture and the national identity by the vast majority of the participants. Moreover, most participants linked knowledge of English to social prestige. Another interesting finding is that over 70% of respondents found no connection between learning English and westernisation. Their findings indicate that Saudis differentiate between English as a carrier of culture and English as a component of culture (Abed Alhaq and Smadi, 1996, p. 311). This finding supports the earlier argument about Saudis' positive attitudes and EFL.

Although English was taught in private primary schools as an extra subject if paid for by the learners' parents, as a mark of its importance in the culture, the Saudi government decided to introduce English into all public primary schools just after the events of 9/11, as mentioned previously (Elyas, 2008). This move was carried out under the supervision of the Curriculum Department at the Central Office (CDCO) of the MOE (Mahboob and Elyas, 2014).

From the period of 1980s, until recently, as discussed previously, university English departments commenced awarding Bachelor degrees in English language to their local (Saudi) learners with courses including literature, translation, linguistics and teaching methodologies (Javid et al., 2012). However, some universities did not and still do not have pedagogical aims and objectives in which ELT methodologies play a major part and indeed they may represent ten percent or less of the entire course (Al-Seghayer, 2011). In recent years, several studies have been undertaken to review the recent changes in EFL teaching programmes (Al-Hazmi, 2003 and Khan, 2011). It has been found that these ELT preparation programmes are not effective in terms of quality of ELT teachers (Javid et al., 2012). This is because the existing programmes are inappropriate with regard to pedagogical knowledge in terms of content and technological and disciplinary awareness (Al-Seghayer, 2011). The following part of this section further discusses the ELT teachers

in the Saudi context, how these teachers practise teaching and suitable training programmes generated for their teaching development, as discussed in this current study.

2.6.1 English language teachers in the Saudi context

After many years' experience of involvement in teaching in the Saudi context, the Ministry of Education has ordered teachers to promote Saudi students' proficiency in English, because it is a common language internationally. The Saudi government wants Saudis to play a main role in international arts and sciences. However, the current methods of teaching English have been criticised for being too rigid and not permitting teachers to use their own initiative. Alhazmi (2010) states that teachers and school administrators usually have negative opinions of the curriculum because of its rigidity. Teachers have to follow the official textbook when teaching English, which does not allow the teachers to be creative (Alhazmi, 2010). This is in spite of certain school textbooks having been revised to include some progressive methods of language teaching and several reforms having been carried out in the curriculum (Al-Shammmary, 2007). The majority of English teachers come from other countries due to there not being enough qualified English teachers in Saudi Arabia. Unqualified English teachers in Saudi Arabia may not have adequate pedagogical skills (Alosaimi, 2007).

In recent years, several educational institutions began training courses for Saudi English teachers in KSA and overseas. The purpose of these is to enhance the level of teaching and help teachers to attain a standard where they can employ more effective teaching methodologies. They also aim, as Looney (2004) explains, in the long term to replace the overseas teachers with appropriately qualified Saudi ones, in the context of the national programme of Saudisation, a term used in KSA to denote a programme which aims to replace expatriate workers with Saudis.

Further, teachers in Saudi Arabia are faced by an increasing number of students in schools and universities, which means class sizes can often be very large. Hence, it is not possible for the teachers to give Saudi learners a great deal of individual attention such as teaching methods used, the teacher's efficiency in stimulating the student's interest, the sufficiency of comments on the student's work and feedback (Monks and Schmidt, 2010).

2.6.2 English language learners in the Saudi context

After several years of English language learning in Saudi Arabia, generally six years in intermediate schools and secondary schools, Saudi learners are still incapable of communicating effectively in English and may only gain basic writing and reading (Alrabi, 2011). The reason for this phenomenon is related to the cultural and religious beliefs and the attitudes of the Saudi learners themselves that can reduce the importance of English language learning (Alrabi, 2011). In the orientation year at university level in Saudi Arabia, practically all the learners are aged between 18 and 21 years old. The majority of these may be considered not greatly motivated to learn English as a L2, seeing no point to this, as Arabic is the official language of the country. McKay and Bokhorst-Heng (2008) suggest that the norms and attitudes of the learners' context should be used to measure motivation, due to there being numerous different contexts of English language learning, and this is something that I was also really interested to investigate in my study.

The teaching and learning of English takes place mainly within the classroom setting and rarely outside this environment. It has been suggested that learners are least motivated when they regard what they are learning as irrelevant to them and it is only when they feel there is a point to what they are learning that they will be motivated (McKay and Bokhorst-Heng, 2008). At this stage in the orientation year, the only motivation of learners is often to complete the orientation year in order to meet the university's requirements regarding English language learning; this can be considered an '*instrumental motivation*' (McKay and Bokhorst-Heng, 2008; Rabab'ah, 2005). Saudi students consider the English language to be a means of continuing to further studies, which is the reason for their wish to learn it (Shemary, 2008). However, numerous academics in higher education are of the opinion that the level of English among Saudi students is still low in spite of the government's efforts to improve Saudi learners' English language skills (Alosaimi, 2007). The reason for this could be that the majority of English teachers in Saudi Arabia are from other Arab countries and often do not have any teaching qualifications (Elyas, 2008). Hence, English language teaching in Saudi Arabia has been heavily influenced by the Arabic language, which may have an effect on English language learning and may lead to several issues that hinder learners from achieving good results in their learning (Javid et al., 2012). In the following section, the English language materials and approaches applied in the Saudi context will be discussed.

2.7 English teaching materials, approaches and methods

The English textbooks and materials used in Saudi schools and universities were developed in a country where English is the first language, and where up-to-date methods of language learning and teaching are used (Elyas, 2008; King Abdul Aziz University, 2013). While in the KSA, university teaching is becoming more progressive and uses the communicative approach in terms of L2 learning, there are still issues about using the textbooks and their activities. The aim of the course material is to link to the classroom practice of the four language skills, i.e., reading, listening, writing and speaking, in each unit (please see appendix G1).

Several approaches to language teaching and learning have been proposed but have later fallen into disfavour (Griffiths and Parr, 2001), and one single approach tends to be used in the English language classroom in KSA, i.e. the traditional, teacher-centred approach (grammar translation method). Al Asmari (2013) reports that this approach centres around teaching rather than learning, which has resulted in learners being heavily reliant on their teachers. That is, according to Broughton et al. (1994, p. 22), the conventional method of teaching is a '*teacher-dominant interaction*'. The traditional or formal approach to English language teaching often meets with criticism by learners in Saudi Arabia, who find it tedious as there is no interaction in class. While integrated skills lessons form part of the course materials, more highly developed approaches to and methods of teaching English, for example, the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach, is not generally used (Rabab'ah, 2005).

A number of scholars have argued that teaching methods with sound techniques and strategies are necessary to involve language learners in various communicative activities whose purpose is to improve the communicative competence of the learners (e.g., Savignon, 1983; Ellis, 1985, 1994). Among such activities and approaches, Al-Nofaie (2010) claims there is evidence to suggest that using CLT in the Saudi context may achieve communicative competence by focusing on teaching spoken English communication in skills (Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

After presenting the English language learning and teaching in the Saudi context, as a whole, Javid et al. (2012) claim that most Saudi university learners, who were the focus of this study, believe that teaching based on lectures is no longer suitable for learning

effectively and there is a need for learners to make a more active contribution in terms of communication the language-learning classroom. This may assist Saudi learners to practise the TL. This may also be beneficial in engaging learners in the construction of their own language development, expressing meaning in a manner way is relevant both personally and culturally, and being modified to various levels of ability (Kao and O'Neill, 1998). Therefore, a number Saudi universities/colleges have during the last five years introduced a more active and interactive learning in the L2 classroom.

2.8 Conclusion

This chapter has presented the context to the study. Due to increasing globalisation and the necessity for Saudi Arabia to compete in the international markets, English has become increasingly important in Saudi Arabia. However, English instruction remains on the whole teacher-centred and traditional. Furthermore, in spite of the use of up-to-date teaching methods and approaches in the last decade at higher education level, English is still taught at school levels within the rigid framework of the prescribed curriculum. It has been recommended that it is necessary to introduce up-to-date approaches to English language teaching in order to improve standards of English in Saudi Arabia. One of these innovative approaches is communicative English teaching and the use of CIAs in the TL. I was keen to gain students' and teachers' perceptions of the approaches used in the orientation year in the HE institutions and their effect on students' development of oral English skills. The next chapter will present the literature review of this research.

Chapter Three: Literature Review

3.1 Introduction

The main aim of the research study is to investigate the approaches to English language teaching in the Saudi Arabian university/college context, teachers' and students' perceptions of these approaches, in particular regarding the development of students' oral English. The research further aims to identify favourable, unfavourable and challenging factors that may emerge in the language classroom, and which may assist or hinder the development of learners' speaking skills.

In the light of these aims, this chapter addresses the background for the research by providing a review of the literature regarding L2 learning and teaching. This literature review chapter has the main objective of providing a framework for the research and supporting the findings which emerged from the empirical research conducted for this study. The content of this chapter relates to the three research questions (see section 1.5).

This chapter will discuss aspects of language learning and teaching (e.g., English) that may serve as a framework for understanding learners' and teachers' perceptions of using the TL (English) in the language classroom. It will highlight some of the main theories regarding language-teaching approaches, methods and techniques, including CLT and the post-method teaching, as well as how the use of the TL may contribute to the development of the learners' L2. Subsequently, it will touch on research regarding the challenges that teachers and learners may encounter in L2 teaching and learning regarding the use of interactive activities and TL. It will also explain some of the theories that promote translanguaging and the use of the mother tongue as an aid to learning and discuss whether a native speaking (NS) or a non-native speaking (NNS) teacher may be considered preferable for the FL teaching environment. Furthermore, this chapter will discuss research studies, which have investigated the strategies adopted to support the development of students' TL and how materials and activities used can present the TL culture in an EFL classroom.

Research into obstacles that may arise due to the practice of the TL in the FL classroom and which may prevent FL learners from language learning will be discussed, including language anxiety, teachers' approaches to errors in speaking the TL and demotivation. It is

important to identify what research believes to be the main cause of language anxiety that may affect L2 learning, and the FL learners' self-concept regarding the practice of the TL in the language classroom. The following section of the chapter will discuss the English language classrooms' context.

3.2 An overview of the English language teaching classroom context

It has been shown that L2 teaching approaches and methods might vary considerably around the globe. The change in FL teaching approaches and methods throughout history as Richards and Rodgers (2001, p.1) illustrate, '*have reflected recognition of changes in the kind of proficiency learners need*'. One example, as Richards and Rodgers suggest, is the shift towards verbal proficiency instead of reading comprehension as the aim of L2 learning. This has led to research being conducted on the process of teaching, particularly in the English language (ELT), possibly due to the increased number of adult (e.g. university level students) EFL learners learning English, as in the context of study (Saudi Arabia). Richards and Rodgers (2001) and Dörnyei (1990) state that English has become the 'official', dominant language, widely used in several academic disciplines and education, as well as being a means of global communication.

There has been an emergence of the communicative approach in the Saudi context in language teaching and learning during the last five or six years at the university level (Mahmoud, 2012). Mahmoud (2012) suggests that there is a shift from the traditional L2 teaching methods such as GTM and the use of L1 in the language classroom. According to Hall and Verplatse (2000), the language classroom can be viewed as a community of social learning and discourse, in which teachers and students talk and interact in order to generate a space for communication, sharing, thinking and learning. Crichton (2009, p. 20) states, '*the classroom may be viewed by some as an artificial situation but, whether it is not, it is very real to the pupils and the teacher who spend a large part of their lives in it*'. Cullen (1998, p.181) states that

‘the classroom, typically a large, formal gathering which comes together for pedagogical rather than social reasons, will also have its own rules and conventions of communication, understood by all those present; these established patterns are likely to be very different from the norms of turn-taking and communicative interaction which operate in small, informal, social gathering outside’.

Communicative classroom interactions arguably improve language learning as a social enterprise in relation to the repetition of the learners' regular tasks (Consolo, 2006). The role of interaction in L2 learning is particularly important when

‘it is in their interactions with each other that teachers and students work together to create the intellectual and practical activities that shape both the form and the content of the target language as well as the processes and outcomes of individual development’ (Hall and Verplaetse, 2000, p.10).

The FL classroom, therefore, might not be restricted to aspects of vocabulary, phonology and structure, but may also serve to establish meaning for a degree of critical thinking and imagination in independent learning activities (Li, 2011). Yoshida (2013) proposes that these interactive moves that follow the pattern of the classroom interaction may assist and offer learning opportunities for the FL learners to practise the TL by communicating interactively in the language-learning classroom. Communicative interaction may involve the participation of learners in role-plays, group work and other oral activities. Castro (2010) suggests that these language classroom interaction activities may have a tight relation with the theory of CLT. This will be discussed in a later section of the chapter. In the next part of this section, I will discuss language-teaching approaches in more detail.

3.2.1 Grammar-translation method (GTM)

The grammar-translation method was first used to teach the classical languages, Latin and Greek (Chastain, 1988, as cited in Freeman, 2000), and the use of the learners' mother tongue was considered to be necessary to assist the L2 teaching learning process (Mahmoud, 2012). However, although it was and still is, in widespread use in KSA, it is not advocated by all (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Fareh (2010) indicates that there are some obstacles that Arab learners (e.g. Saudi EFL students) may encounter in EFL learning; two of these are inconvenient language teaching approaches, such as using GTM and exposure to English.

GTM mainly emphasise ‘literary texts’, vocabulary and grammar rather than verbal production of the TL (Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Freeman, 2000). Its focus is on comprehending the system of the FL instead of knowing how to produce the L2 in communicative situations (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Moreover, the nature of GTM means it revolves mainly around interaction between the L2 teacher and the learners in the classroom, with a lack of student-student interaction (Freeman, 2000). MacIntyre and

Gardner (1991) found that university students with language anxiety faced obstacles in speaking the TL and preferred the GTM and the use of L1, as they were not required to talk in the language, which resulted in their underestimating their own capabilities. Language anxiety, with reference to the Saudi context will be discussed in a later section of this chapter. The following section will discuss the audio-lingual teaching approach.

3.2.2 Audio-lingual, Visual methods, functions and notions

The audio-lingual approach was prominent between the 1930s and the 1970s; it involved teaching and learning a FL through drills, in language laboratories (Castagnaro, 2006). This approach was related to Skinner's (1957) principles and originated from behaviourism, depending on repetition, drills and the use of textbooks to formulate and practise the TL in order to develop communicative skills, with a focus on grammar (Richards, 2002), as tends to be the case in the Saudi context. This approach also focused on structure and form rather than meaning, as well as on memorisation methods (Finocchiaro and Brumfit, 1983).

Following this approach, audio-visual methods emerged in the mid-1970s in France (Molina et al., 2015), employing language, which encompass meaning and contextualisation. Materials that were used for this method include tapes and filmstrips used for repetition, memorisation and drills to practise the TL structure (Molina, et al., 2015). More recently, Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL), which could be considered an audio-visual method, was developed. With this method, students can use innovative materials such as videos on computers to develop their language learning (Beatty, 2003). Beatty (2003, p.7) states that CALL is '*any process in which a learner uses a computer and, as a result, improves his or her language*', and as it is an independent learning method, it may not involve the communicative practices and interaction that can be found in the classroom.

Another approach that could lead to communicative situations is 'functions and notions'. Willikins (1972), as Richards and Rodgers (2001) report, analysed the communicative meanings that a FL learner requires to express and comprehend. Willikins divided communicative meanings into notional categories such as time, sequence, location, quantity and frequency, while communicative function indicated complaints, offers, requests and denials in the TL. This potentially enables learners to use the TL structure by

using language structure in a variety of context to explain ideas and introduce topics that involve the concepts those EFL students are discussing (Richards, 2006). The communicative approach, which involves communicative language teaching, will be discussed in the next section.

3.2.3 Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in the TL classroom

A communicative approach may be considered an extension of the functional-notional approach in that each shares the same process by focusing on meaning and the use of authenticity in their materials (Skehan, 2006). CLT was developed to replace the previous methods practised in FL teaching, such as the grammar-translation and audio-lingual methods (Warschauer & Kern, 2000). CLT has served a beneficial purpose for the language teaching profession for several years (Bax, 2003). The CLT approach was developed by Hymes (1972), who suggested that the approach should take account of the language involved rather than just setting out a group of phonological, grammatical and lexical rules (Hiep, 2007). Hiep (2007) argues if EFL students wish to use the L2 appropriately, they must develop communicative competence. Hymes notion of communicative competence was also promoted by other language scholars such as Canale and Swain (1980), who considered communicative competence as encompassing grammatical competence, discourse competence, strategic competence and sociolinguistic competence (please see p. 31 for further information), while others (e.g., Breen and Candlin, 1980) contend that communicative competence is the aim of learning a L2 (Hiep, 2007).

Since the emergence of CLT as a widely-used approach in the early 1980s there have been debates regarding its definition (see Richards, 2006) and the suitability of its practice in a variety of cultures (Hiep, 2007). In the communicative approach, the assumption is made that L2 students will require a focus to be placed on the development of communicative competence, and this cannot be accomplished without realistic communication strategies (Skehan, 2006). Richards and Rodgers (2001) indicate that CLT can be considered an approach rather a method. Richards (2006, p. 2) states that CLT '*can be understood as a set of principles about the goals of language teaching, how learners learn a language, the kinds of classroom activities that best facilitate learning, and the roles of teacher and learners in the classroom*'. In other words, CLT is an approach that may contribute to facilitating the learning of a L2 (e.g. English) and enhance interaction, as both are the

purpose and the ultimate aim of language learning. Crichton (2009) argues that the use of CLT may involve learners in using the TL in interaction in the language classroom.

Brown (2000) suggests 'interconnected' characteristics of CLT; first, the classroom aims to give attention to all elements of communicative competence: function, strategy, grammar and discourse. Second, the language used by the teacher is chosen to engage the learners in the genuine, functional and meaningful use of the language. Organisational language forms are not the focus, but rather aspects of the language that support the learner in accomplishing these aims. Third, as noted by Brown (2000), fluency and accuracy are generally regarded as important communicative techniques; however, in some circumstances it might be necessary to focus on fluency rather than accuracy in order to keep the learners engaged.

Brown (2000) offers several characteristics of CLT related to naturalness. Interaction involves naturalness in communication, as the conversation and discussion are similar to those in a real-life situation in terms of the process of understanding and making themselves understood. Moreover, naturalness is a result of the cooperation among speakers, and of their conversation having '*no pre-defined goal and the negotiation of topical coherence [being] shared between the participants*' (Warren, 2006, p. 13). According to Richards (2006), if CLT means teaching conversation, it may be inferred that it is an open-ended talk and negotiation activities ought to be meaningful and include everything that learners may need in language learning.

Richards (2006) also claims that the goal of CLT is the achievement of 'communicative competence', which can be related to what is called grammatical competence. Grammatical competence as Richards argues, indicates the capability to perform and structure a meaningful sentence in the language. Furthermore, Savignon (2002, p. 3) emphasises that CLT is related to learners' needs, and states that '*learner communicative needs provide a framework for elaborating program goals in terms of functional competence*'. Savignon (2002) suggests five factors of communicative materials and curricula that may assist the CLT's practical and theoretical; while all of these are important, those most relevant to this study and the context investigated are:

- i- 'Language for an objective' refers to the production of the L2 for actual communication aims.

- ii- ‘Outside the classroom door’ indicates students’ preparation to use the L2 in an informal setting (real life situation).

Corresponding to Sauvignon’s factors, which are related to the materials, part of the criticism that has often been levelled at Saudi ELT is that the materials are not relevant to the learners’ communicative situations, and can therefore not achieve that functional competence Sauvignon refers to. This implies that the EFL students lack communicative competence as a result of an inadequate curriculum, inefficient materials (textbooks) and tasks used in those materials of ELT in the Saudi context (Rababaa, 2003; Al-Seghayer, 2007; Abu Ellif and Maarof, 2011). Similarly, Khankar (2001) found that the elements of the ELT curriculum or textbook materials did not emphasise cultural aspects and problem solving to make learners discuss and communicate in English outside the language classroom.

Communicative competence

Richards (2006), refers to grammatical competence as the knowledge that an individual has regarding a language to form language expression such as phrases, sentences patterns, parts of speech, clauses and tenses. Although grammatical competence is an essential dimension of learning a language, it is plain that it is not the only element involved in learning a language and it is possible to be competent in grammar without achieving great success in terms of using the language in communication and vice versa (Richards, 2006). In addition, aspects of language knowledge which are derived from communicative competence may include the awareness of the language for several functions and purposes:

- ‘*Strategic competence*’: how to differ between the informal and formal in accordance with the setting and participants of the language use.
- ‘*Discourse competence*’: how to perform and comprehend various types of text for example, reports, conversation and narratives.
- ‘*Sociolinguistic competence*’: how to maintain communication in spite of experiencing obstacles in an individual’s language knowledge (Canal and Swain, 1980; Richards, 2006).

Furthermore, as these functions can be significant in communication, Saudi EFL students are likely to need them to develop their overall communicative competence.

Moreover, communicative competence may be developed from the use of communicative interaction that includes meaning. Nevertheless, how it is developed depends on the L2 teacher's perception of what communication refers to, and how it can be integrated into the students' context (Hiep, 2007). A number of techniques in ELT can be used in the L2 classroom, two of which are presentation, practice, production (P-P-P.), and task-based teaching and learning, these will be discussed below.

The P-P-P approach

The P-P-P cycle is a sequence of three phases in a model of a lesson, which is referred to as the situational approach (Richards, 2006). Similarly, it is an approach used deductively that can be adopted into the structure of a lesson, in which the L2 instructor presents the TL, illustrates the structure assuring the students' understanding and provides the students with the opportunity to perform the planned tasks in using the new language in a controlled context (Richards, 2006; British Council, 2006). Richards (2006) proposes that this type of grammatical teaching method can provide a link to functional and skills-based teaching, and accuracy activities such as drill and grammar practice have been replaced by fluency activities based on interactive small-group work.

3.2.4 Task-Based teaching and learning method

Chambers (1999) and others suggest that, to assist learners in making a connection between their classroom activities and the outside world, learning through interactive activities is an approach that could encourage the use of English language communication skills. More specifically, the simulation of a real-life situation can help learners to relate what is taught in the classroom to events in their everyday lives, such as buying something in a shop (Holden, 1981). A task-based learning approach can convey to learners some notion of how the TL can be used in a real-life language situation. Ellis (2000) describes task-based learning as a 'work plan'. Further, according to Skehan (2003), four criteria can be used to make the distinction between a task and an exercise. These are: content is crucial; there is a specified target to work towards; the outcome of the activity is evaluated; and there is a connection with the real world (e.g. travelling on an airplane). Tasks can encourage language learning, as they usually need learners to work in pairs or groups, which they generally find enjoyable. Harmer (2001) argues that tasks encourage language acquisition through the types of language and interaction they require. Hence,

when learners complete tasks and achieve goals, this is an indication that they are motivated (Brophy, 2005).

These language teaching approaches and methods discussed above, with all their practices and strategies, might contribute to allowing EFL students to use the TL in the L2 classroom through employing communicative activities set in real-life situations with relevant tasks and materials (Rabab'ah, 2005; Richards, 2006). However, a post-method teaching approach could also be selected as a package that might include a variety of approaches and methods, comprising procedures of 'eclecticism', adopting a particular teaching approach or method that is deemed appropriate in the L2 classroom (British Council, 2009), such as the Saudi context's L2 classroom. This could lead to a new era of language teaching approaches (Galante, 2014), as will be discussed in the following section.

3.2.5 Post-method teaching in the TL classroom

The shift between language teaching methods or approaches could enhance awareness of the complexity of the nature of L2 teaching and learning (Galante, 2014). The reason for this is, as Galante (2014), argues, concerns the appropriate path or method that L2 teachers implement and their role in that respect, and the aims of the EFL students. The employment of several language teaching approaches and methods in FL classrooms between the middle and the end of the 20th century, appears to have resulted in the assumption that there is no guarantee that any one, single teaching approach or method exists that is or appears to be consistently successful or appropriate (Brown, 2014). It has been reported in the domain of ELT that a number of these teaching approaches are unlikely to be adopted in L2 classrooms (Fat'hi et al., 2015). This is due to the likelihood of complications in some circumstances, such as considerations arising from the specific context in terms of applying a certain L2 teaching approach (e.g. CLT), as Bax (2003), Hiep (2007), (Galante, 2014) and Al Asmari (2015) argue. The context can include ethnic, social and economic elements, consistent with Brown's (2014) hypothesis noted above. Furthermore, there may be difficulties in terms of the awareness of a particular approach's use, leading to deficiencies in its practical application, implying that further training and a shift in personal teaching beliefs might be required (Hiep, 2007 and Allwright, 1991). This has led to the introduction at the beginning of the new millennium, of the post-method teaching era (Galante, 2014).

The post-method teaching era emerged in response to a desire to find an optimal teaching approach that could be free from the constraints of one restrictive method (Kumaravadivelu, 1994). Post-method teaching is a more '*democratic approach to language teaching profession since it assigns a voice to practitioners and respects the type of knowledge they possess*' (Akbari, 2005, p. 5). Kumaravadivelu (1994) proposes three characteristics of the post-method teaching. He highlights that it is an alternative to a method, as it requires moving beyond the concept of methods and approaches. It encourages the autonomy of language teachers in order to support them in the implementation of a reflective L2 teaching approach of their own. Such autonomy could be significant in terms of the development of L2 teachers' teaching practices, and is considered to be '*the heart of post-method pedagogy*' (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, p. 548). In addition, it stimulates English language teachers to make an analysis of the teaching context, and to make decisions throughout their teaching practice. This '*forms teachers' individual context-based knowledge of their classroom teaching*' (Fat'hi et al., 2015, p. 309).

The post-method approach places L2 teachers at the heart of L2 teaching and learning; moreover, it values their knowledge, confidence and teaching experience because they are the ones who are fully aware of the own L2 classroom context (Fat'hi et al., 2015), and their EFL learners' needs. Awareness of these needs might revolve around considering the EFL learners' identity within their context, as discussed above; when their identity, such as L2 learning experience, languages and culture, is determined, then these EFL students can potentially be engaged in the language classroom and use the TL (Galante, 2014), as will be discussed further in the following section. In other words, English language teachers should provide their learners with a 'safe place' in the language classroom (Galante, 2014). In the Saudi context, this may be through the use of *translanguaging*, and the use of GTM for Saudi EFL students in order potentially to facilitate L2 learning. *Translanguaging* will be discussed further in section 3.4. The post-method approach could, as Galante (2014) suggests, support learners to '*voice their feelings, values, beliefs and experience while learning English is necessary for their engagement in language learning*' (p. 60).

L2 teachers are deemed to have significant expertise, as a consequence of their learning experience, previous teaching experience, knowledge of theoretical perspectives and practice of teaching methods gained throughout their training as L2 teachers (Prabhu,

1990). Thus, L2 teachers who construct a post-method teaching approach and do not limit themselves to a certain teaching approach or method are likely to be reflective, as they monitor their teaching, assess its outcomes, define issues with and obstacles to L2 learning, provide solutions for these and attempt to use new techniques and strategies (Fat'hi et al., 2015).

The post-method teaching approach attempts to explore the instructional methods appropriate for real-life communication in the L2 classroom, allowing the EFL students not to focus solely on linguistic accuracy, but also to develop their fluency (Fat'hi et al., 2015) in the TL. The success of this method is based on the assumption that EFL students are committed participants in the collaborative adventure of L2 learning, and oriented towards the achievement of their goals in terms of performance and production of the TL (Kumaravadivelu, 2001; Brown, 2001). Shifting from one method or approach to the post-method teaching approach therefore requires a partnership between L2 teachers and their learners as key players in constructing knowledge (Galante, 2014) of the L2. Language teachers should not be restricted to particular teaching approaches; their main focus should be on their students and the allocation of methods that inspire them and meet their needs, as discussed above, which will support both EFL learners and language teachers to select the most suitable path (Galante, 2014). Thus, this approach may stimulate the EFL students, allowing them to use the TL in the language classroom and develop their communicative competence.

It has been recognised that the use of TL in the classroom by the teachers may also be influential in developing communicative competence. More discussion about the use of the TL will take place in the next section.

3.3 The use of the target language in the language classroom

There is a general agreement on the part of EFL teachers that the TL should be used as much as possible (Turnbull and Arnett, 2002). At issue is the extent to which the L2 should be used in FL learning (Littlewood and Yu, 2011). Cook (2001) suggests that the extended use of the FL in the language classroom, avoiding the L1, may involve learners in full engagement in the additional language in order to learn it. Cook (2001) adds that the FL may remain a set of odd and arbitrary conventions if the learners do not exercise it in significant ways. Turnbull, (2001) argues that in the majority of FL contexts, teachers are

the main linguistic model for their learners and therefore the essential source of the TL. The debate mostly focuses on the dominance of TL in the L2 classroom associated with the learners' full exposure to the input (Cullen, 1998), particularly when there is little or no opportunity to practise the TL in FL contexts, in which case, the learners may lose interest in learning the language (Chambers, 2013). Exercising the TL may have several merits that may enhance the learning in FL classrooms. The exposure to and the usage of the TL offer positive and appropriate occasions for reinforcement of recognised vocabularies and a preface for unknown ones; it may assist in pronunciation and intonation practices, with which the learners' native language may intervene if it is practised injudiciously (Cook, 2001; Kieu, 2010).

FL learners can be assisted through participation in the TL, such as English, in the language classroom by engaging in discussions and using English in group work (Huong, 2007). In addition, Turnbull and Arnett (2002) suggest that the use of the TL may motivate students to observe its usefulness and this may result in their experiencing a sense of instant success. Two other studies (e.g., Liu, 2008; Turnbull, 2001) have shown that a huge amount of practice and input of the TL in the classroom where it is the normal means of communication affects positively the development of the learners' TL skills. Using the TL can influence students' perceptions, which could be related to their experience in the language classroom, due to the students' 'self-concept', which may be very different to that of their self-concept as a language learner. The self-concept of the EFL students regarding using the TL will be discussed in the following section.

3.3.1 The influence of self-concept, towards the practice of communicative TL in the language classroom

It is important to explore the Saudi EFL students' self-concept in terms of using the TL in the language classroom because in general, there is the prestige factor for them if they speak it, as discussed in Chapter Two. However, using the TL might cause nervousness about being corrected and embarrassment, which may lead them to make errors (see Alhaisoni, 2012; Aydin, 2008), and this may result in a negative impact on the FL learners' self-concept and beliefs regarding the FL/TL learning and usage (Yoshida, 2013).

The language learners' self-concept is influenced by the social environment such as FL classrooms (Jackson, 2008), in the Saudi context. The nature of self-concept is complicated

and interlinked with some other notions, for example, self-efficiency, self-perception and self-confidence (Mercer, 2011b). Mercer (2011b) debates that there are internal and external factors that may play an important role of the FL learners' self-concept about using and learning the TL, which are discussed below.

- *Internal factors of FL learners' self-concept*

Mercer (2011b) defines the internal factors of the learners' self-concept as those mostly placed within the individuals (FL learners) themselves. He classifies these internal factors as:

- 1) Cross-domain comparison, which gives a focus on the subject level, across L1 and L2, across task domains and across the skill effect.
- 2) Belief system, which is related to beliefs about learning an additional language. Mercer argues that through hard work and the recognition of the importance of practice in the TL (e.g. English), FL learners' self-concept may become positive.

In addition, Mercer (2011b) argues about a potential relationship between the sense of competency and the positive response to a certain L2 and the prospect of the indirect impact of affective factors such as enjoyment and interest in using the TL.

- *External Factors of FL learners' self-concept*

External factors are identified as the factors that are mostly stimulated from the outside the FL learner (Mercer, 2011b). These factors consist of:

- 1) Social comparison, which is referred to the learners' comparison of perceived achievements and grades with others (peers). This is highly relevant to the Saudi context because the learners are extremely concerned that they might be compared to their peers and to the ideal model of English. This is probably due to the culture and the education system in the context, in particular during the transition from high school to the university level (Mercer, 2011b), as the EFL students in this study. Mercer adds other factors such as
- 2) Previous formal and informal poor language learning experiences and use of the TL such as the school stage in the Saudi context.

3) Feedback from considerable others such as teachers.

4) Success and failure experiences. This relates to the social comparison above, the fear of negative feedback that Saudi EFL students might have and the fact they had poor learning experiences up to the moment they come in to the university level. This might also impact on the language learners' self-concept, so that they believe that they are not competent learners of English.

Hence, the teachers' use of the TL, and any challenges its use might present in terms of inhibiting learners (Kim and Elder, 2008; Chambers, 2013), or making them anxious was something that was borne in mind during this research study. Language anxiety will be discussed in more detail in Section 3.9; however, some initial anxiety-provoking factors for learners are described below.

3.3.2 Challenges for learners and teachers in the use of the TL

Chambers (2013) argues that challenging factors for the learners' centre around their ability level in the TL, which may range widely within the same language classroom. He also states that the motivation of the learners to use the TL, and their attitude towards it may generate resistance to and diminish their confidence in using it, which may be impediments in the language classroom. Due to the Saudi cultural identity, learners may feel nervous about speaking the TL, as they are afraid of making errors in their speech, negative feedback from the teacher, or of embarrassment in front of their classmates. Alhaisoni (2012) conducted a study on Saudi EFL students in the orientation year at Ha'il University. Alhaisoni found that the students participating in his research often described nervousness, stress, fear and embarrassment when learning and speaking English in the language classroom. They justified their responses by stating that they were anxious about making errors and also possibly failing their exams. Horwitz et al. (1986) found that learners' anxiety in the EFL classroom increases as a result of negative evaluation of their proficiency in the language. Furthermore, Hall and Cook (2012) indicate that learners' attitude to using their L1 as portrayed in some studies (e.g. Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney 2008), and toward using some activities in the TL may put understanding at risk. The activities suggested may include group work, class management instructions and sociable aims (e.g. developing relationships with peers), as this can generate language anxiety if the TL is exclusively practised in the language classroom.

The teacher may also face certain challenges in the language classroom. These particular hurdles may imply lack of self-confidence in regard to using the TL (Chamber, 2013). Several longitudinal studies have shown that experience leads teachers to be more confident in practising the TL (Littlewood and Yu, 2011). Bateman (2008) proposes that this is an issue when both non-native speakers (NNS) and the native speaker (NS) of the TL are involved. Levine (2003) states that a lack of training in using the TL and CIAs may result in teachers losing control of their classes, and that the learners' lack of communicative understanding might cause them to abandon their efforts to learn the L2. Levine (2003) also suggests that using the TL may require an additional effort, and extra time in terms of preparation for examinations on the part of the teachers. Other challenges that teachers encounter in class such as strategies to correct learners' errors will be discussed later in this chapter. In order to create an environment in the FL classroom where the TL continues to be the main vehicle of communication, several principles may be taken into account (Moeller and Roberts, 2013), which will be discussed below. This section will bring an overview of what the research and the theoretical literature suggest, as the optimal position (Macaro, 2001) to promote the use of the TL in the classroom (please see section 3.4 for further details regarding Macaro's positions of using the TL).

3.3.3 Strategies to promote the use of the TL in the classroom

This section presents a 'best case scenario' of how the TL may be used effectively in the L2 classroom. Furthermore, this section relies heavily on Moeller and Roberts' (2013) principles of student engagement in the TL. There are a number of principles that Moeller and Roberts (2013) believe may play a role in supporting FL teachers to provide and maintain the TL in the language classroom by creating an interactive and engaging learning atmosphere. According to Moeller and Roberts, (2013) students may be put in a situation where they construct knowledge by being involved in a number of fully scaffolded tasks generated by the teacher. The authors argue that the teacher may identify and personalize learners' learning outcomes, so that learners know what to do with language practised.

Additionally, Moeller and Roberts (2013) suggest that the teacher may prefer to present the content and the context, neatly framing tasks that would assist in engaging the learners in the process of learning and playing the role of a facilitator while they are practising using the TL. Nation (2003) strongly emphasises that tasks ought to be appropriate to the

learners' level. He also asserts that teachers may have to set activities that stimulate FL learners to practise the TL such as telling short stories and role-plays.

Another strategy that is observed as encouraging is when learners are '*rewarded by the teacher and peers by lauding self-correction when students correct their own mistakes*' (Moeller and Roberts, 2013, p. 27). Such error correction develops risk taking (please see section 3.8) and develops a safe learning environment (Moeller and Roberts, 2013). The authors argue that learners ought to realise that making mistakes during L2 learning is not just a natural and frequent occurrence, but also a crucial aspect of the SLA process. Moeller and Roberts (2013) suggest that explanation is required to highlight the value of errors as a sign of progress. Therefore, it is necessary for the teacher to be aware of the more common misconceptions of grammatical structures and go back to these through direct teaching or a learning task that encourages practice, which includes these common mistakes (Moeller and Roberts, 2013).

Another principle that Moeller and Roberts (2013) have listed is based on research using extrinsic motivation and moving towards intrinsic motivation. Extrinsic motivation is practising the task for instrumental value and has external factors that make it a vehicle of motivation such as rewards, passing exams and achieving success (Ryan and Deci, 2000). Intrinsic motivation on the other hand, is defined as '*the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfactions rather than for some separable consequence*' (Ryan and Deci, 2000, p. 56). The authors demonstrate that when FL learners are intrinsically motivated they move to perform for the fun or challenge entailed rather than because of external pressures, or rewards.

However, FL learners may need some stimulation at the start of the course, to involve them in speaking the TL in the language classroom, such as providing participants with 'rewards' (Moeller and Roberts, 2013). L2 learners achieve their reward due to their use of complete phrases in TL, questioning and answering, engaging in idea sharing and expressing their opinions by using the TL in communicative based activities. Once this takes place, FL learners' self-confidence increases and they will experience self-satisfaction and their motivation will move from extrinsic motivation to intrinsic (Moeller and Roberts, 2013).

It could be argued that the shift from extrinsic to intrinsic student motivation requires ‘effective teaching’ as Dörnyei (2001) identifies. Dörnyei argues that what is really important is the teaching technique (please see Dörnyei, 2001). These motivational techniques, as Dörnyei highlights, may introduce motivational activities (authentic situation tasks) in the language classroom. In the next section, communicative interaction in the TL practice and activities that may assist the FL students in the FL classroom to use the TL will be discussed.

3.3.4 Communicative interaction and engagement in the TL use in the FL class

Language classroom communication may have a variety of pedagogical purposes, all of which may require the learners' participation. Krashen (1984) affirms that in order to acquire a language it is necessary for students to interact naturally in the TL classroom; that is, the students should engage in natural communication, in which they are concerned less with how their speaking is formed, focusing instead on what they wish to express and understand.

Brown (2001, p.165) believes that *‘interaction is, in fact, the heart of communication: it is what communication is all about’*. Natural communication in the language classroom may be used spontaneously to focus on everyday situations and to negotiate social interaction such as the weather, sports matches, the world and so forth - whatever interests the learners (Cook, 2001). The teacher might practise the TL for communicative interaction purposes by refraining from the use of the learners’ first language, and focusing instead solely on the L2, even if the learners lack proficiency or are engaged at a lower level (Crichton, 2009). Willis (1996, p.49) offers the simple advice that it is necessary to *‘explain to students that if they want to communicate in the target language they need to practise’*. Al-Nofaie (2010) argues that it is the overall meaning of the communicative interactive message that is important, not the individual expression of learners. For example, if language teachers use the TL and FL learners understand the message, this implies that there is no need for them to be aware of the exact meaning of the words as long as they understand.

The role of L1 in social interaction does not concern some researchers such as Swain and Lapkin (2000); it appears that the TL output is the optimum outcome of the concept of communicative interaction. It is important to realize, however, that in L2 classes teachers

who share the L1 with the learners are likely to resort to the learners' mother tongue due to class management needs or in order to provide instructions (Lightbown and Spada, 2013). On the other hand, this procedure might inhibit learners from practising the TL in communication resembling that in real life outside the classroom (Al-Nofaie, 2010). Thus, it is essential to take into account both when the L1 might be practised and when the TL employed, with a realisation of the way in which the TL input affects the students' competence (Bateman, 2008). Peer contribution may be combined in collaborative learning if teachers mix groups of learners comprising learners with different levels of language performance and 'content expertise' (Hernández, 2003). Hernández argues that

‘a variety of groupings — pairs, triads, and small groups — can facilitate learning and meet the linguistic and instructional demands of all learners. Students in such settings have the opportunity to gain insights on how others access curricular knowledge and process information in their English language’ (p. 129).

Nevertheless, interaction within a classroom grouping may be tricky when one of the FL learners in the interaction is far less competent than his peer in the language or at a lower level of the communicative language practised in the classroom (Crichton, 2009).

As stated earlier, the language classroom is a very specific context that has particular aspects different to other contexts (Pellegrini and Blatchford, 2000). Furthermore, its influence on language learning, development needs and motivation must be considered in order to obtain a full picture of what is important for pedagogical improvement (Blatchford et al., 2003). Previous studies in language classroom interaction by several researchers such as Newton (1991), Fillmore (1982) and Long et al. (1976) found that small groups of learners participating together in TL classroom discussion resulted in an enhancement of language output as compared to learners carrying out their tasks individually, and even a learner interacting with his/her teacher may also assist in language production. In other words, group work activities in a language classroom may provide a better opportunity for learners to enhance their language production and create negotiation for meaning (NFM). Walsh (2006) argues that interacting with others in the language classroom in group activities obliges learners to alter their discourse in order to ensure that their meaning is understood. He also affirms that in any type of conversation, meaning is negotiated, and it can be suggested that the NFM is similar to the Long's (1996) hypothesis of SLA interaction in that both involve asking for confirmation and clarification.

3.3.4.1 Negotiation for meaning (NFM)

According to Foster and Ohta, (2005, p. 405) '*Negotiation for meaning is a very familiar concept in cognitive approaches to second language acquisition*'. Walsh (2006) proposes that negotiation allows students to offer each other comprehensible input, to provide and obtain feedback on participation so that they may change their speech in order to make meanings clearer, as mentioned previously. It has been identified that NFM supports the acquisition of hitherto unknown vocabulary, encourages FL learners to reformulate their participation, and makes the learners practise the TL (Walsh, 2006). He further suggests that NFM may assist in developing competent interactive interlocutors, which may facilitate SLA due to the link between input and output. The role of the FL teacher is to ensure that the interactive interlocutor's productive output is developed (Walsh, 2006) in order to overcome barriers that these learners may encounter to understanding each other (Foster and Ohta, 2005).

Foster and Ohta (2005) highlight several concerns regarding NFM, agreeing with Long's (1996) hypothesis that it makes a valuable connection between input and output, however it may generate boredom and give rise to a fear of embarrassment, is difficult to identify due to the ambiguity in its superficial structure; for example, a request for clarification may be identical in form to an expression of enthusiastic comprehension and is typically lexical in nature and not morphosyntactic.

The value of these negotiations, particularly in group work activities, is the learners' practice of the TL, especially in the setting of communicative approaches, which rely on learners practising in group work as well as whole class interaction (Littlewood and Yu, 2011). Group work activities will be discussed in the next part of this section, which will identify and highlight their importance in communicative interaction to assist in practising the TL in the FL classroom.

3.3.4.2 Group work activities

Group work can be defined as learners functioning with each other as a small group or team in addition to the teacher's involvement at different levels; however, the specific merit of group work, is that the learners do most of the work (Blatchford et al., 2003). There is more to group work than simply having a small group of learners gathering to do some work in the language classroom. In the language classroom, interactive

communication activities, which may encourage negotiation for meaning may be included as they may assist learners to concentrate on form (Castro, 2010).

A number of concerns have been raised by researchers regarding group work in communicative interaction in the language classroom. Various studies have shown that a large number of teachers and learners have doubts about implementing group work activities in the language classroom (Bennett and Dunne, 1992; Cowie et al., 1994). The concerns of university instructors in regard to FL language classroom work group activities appear to be that is too time consuming or a waste of time, only involving competent FL language learners assisting less competent ones (Turner and Payne, 2005). In addition, Colbeck et al. (2000) and Michaelsen et al. (2002) suggest, just as learners may not be well prepared to participate in-group work, teachers may have no experience in how to generate, guide, and include group work activities in the classroom. Another obstacle that may hinder group work is that not all participants may be motivated in any particular task, leaving perhaps only one learner doing all the work on the behalf of his/her group (Henry, 2006).

Blatchford et al. (2003), however, state that group work is probably related to cognitive development such as reasoning, thinking and resolving issues in the TL. They further contend that one of the main effects of group work activities in the language classroom is the potential to enhance FL learners' motivation and attitudes and their engagement, which can come through their own work and efforts. In a similar vein, Webb & Palincsar (1996) suggest that it is expected that language classroom group work will have a positive impact on learners' activity behaviour and the quality of group conversation (e.g., receiving and giving assistance, sharing ideas). Moreover, it may assist them in using the TL. Saudi EFL learners are very enthusiastic about being involved in such tasks (Abu Ellif and Maarof, 2011). They would prefer techniques that can involve them in spoken communicative interaction with peers rather working on textbook activities (Abu Ellif and Maarof, 2011).

There are several activities that could play an important role in enhancing FL group work in the language classroom, as discussed below.

1. *Learners' Talk* Van Lier (2004) identifies the classroom as the primary context for 'learning talk', which is defined as discussion for the purpose of language learning. On the whole, several research studies have supported learner interactions in favour of teacher talk due to the benefits of the resulting interactivity such as group work discussion. However, it

remains unknown whether the nature of the talk, the nature of the interlocutor or a combination of these two factors is what ultimately makes the difference between these two types of talk (Van Lier, 2004).

2. *Role-play activity*. According to Venugopal (1986), in role-play learners take on the role of an imaginary person and put themselves into an imaginary situation. This allows them to examine the issues involved in a social situation and practise them in the L2 classroom (Blatner, 2009). Learners in the EFL context such as Saudi Arabia are not usually used to extensive communicative interaction in language learning but are accustomed to structured lessons in the classroom. Therefore, role-play can be a good introduction to communicative learning for them, as, according to Holden, (1981, p. 9), it involves '*fairly controlled scenarios*'. The learners may therefore find it easier to accept than other, less structured, forms of an interactive activity such as improvisation.

3- *Game-based activity* has been practised since the 1970s to potentially motivate students, as most people learn better when they are stimulated (Bergin and Reilly, 2005).

There are several arguments in the education literature for encouraging the practice of game-based activities in teaching in general (Burguillo, 2010). For example, Martinson and Chu (2008, p. 478) state that

'games are effective tools for learning because they offer students a hypothetical environment in which they can explore alternative decisions without the risk of failure. Thought and action are combined into purposeful behavior to accomplish a goal. Playing games teaches us how to strategize, to consider alternatives, and to think flexibly'.

Moreover, Pivec and Dziabenko (2010) suggest that the process of learning should be simple and that it ought to be entertaining to learn. Pivec and Dziabenko state that game tasks should be appropriate on a daily basis, which could be conducive to favourable long-term learning outcomes. Game-based learning (GBL) activities are associated with and similar to other physical learning activities such as collaborative-based learning (CBL) activities, problem-based learning (PBL) tasks and so forth (Burguillo, 2010). The environment of these collaborative exercises allows learners to work in small groups by providing competitive, challenging situations while the teacher conducts the process of learning taking the role of a facilitator (Burguillo, 2010).

It can be seen that the L2 teacher can assist the learners' understanding and use of the TL, using several strategies, which involve small work groups by selecting a suitable topic and tasks to stimulate a TL group discussion (Dagarin, 2004). However, for these to be effective it is important to take other factors into account, such as relevance and pace.

3.3.4.3 Relevance of materials and activities

Students ought to be aware of the purpose and relevance of learning (Dörnyei, 2001). Ozverir and Herrington (2011) argue that tasks in language learning should be authentic activities. They suggest that if the L2 classes do not reflect the students' real-life situation, this may have an unfavourable influence on the learners' TL development. Ozverir and Herrington also propose that the significant characteristics of actual life tasks are essential for classroom activities to appear authentic. Nevertheless, it is essential to recognise that the idea of 'authenticity' could differ from one context to another (Hiep, 2007). For example, in an EFL context such as Saudi Arabia, students may have different perception of authentic materials and tasks than do NS teachers (Hiep, 2007). Thus, the context and culture in L2 learning and teaching should be taken into consideration, as will be discussed further in this research.

Brophy (2005) argues that relevant materials and activities, based on daily life are selected based on what the community, that is the teaching community and curriculum designer, perceive is suitable for the students' needs in their EFL learning, not on the grounds of what the learners would select if offered a chance to do so. Therefore, it is important to bear in mind that EFL students are mainly restricted in CIAs in the language classroom setting (Ozverir and Herrington, 2011), where the 'simulation', can only be as authentic as the NS teacher can devise (Felix, 2002). With the view to making these tasks and materials relevant, it is necessary *'to relate the subjects to the everyday experiences and backgrounds of the students'* (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 64). Hence, if the L2 textbooks and materials are the main sources of L2 teaching and learning in class (Ansary and Babaii, 2002), it is preferable to make the tasks compatible to the EFL students' real-life experience. Pace in the classroom can also be fundamental in the L2 class as time limitation in that particular setting is an important element (Goldsmith, 2009). In the following section, pace will be discussed further.

3.3.4.4 Pace in materials and CIAs

Pacing can be identified as

‘the rhythm and timing of classroom activities or units, which includes the way time is allocated to each classroom component and the process of how one decides that it is the right moment to change to another activity, sub-activity, or sub-sub-activity’ (Goldsmith, 2009, p. 33).

Goldsmith (2009) argues that effective ‘pacing’ to some extent appears to be viewed as a skill pertaining to intuitive instructors who is ‘aware of how to do’, and little attention is paid to pacing when it comes to ‘day-to-day’ sequencing exercises in class. A teacher should ask him/herself how long an activity will take in the lesson and how long will the learners be given time to discuss in their pairs and groups (Goldsmith, 2009). In order to study pacing, it is appropriate to examine assessment, which is an evaluation of the complexity of an activity (Goldsmith, 2009). Hence, after viewing the complexity of the activity, educators can have a reasonable idea of how that activity in the lesson can be accommodated (Robinson and Gilbert, 2007 and Ellis, 2003). Thus, Goldsmith (2009) suggests that it is essential to plan for sequence and transition, with the former referring to the linking of individual classroom activities and the latter implying the smooth linkage between each activity or sub-activity. Goldsmith (2009, p. 45) concluded that pacing was important as it *‘allows for a distribution of classroom time that favours a diversity and wealth of activities - and especially communicative, oral, paired activities - within one class period’*. However, the time that some teachers take up talking in their lesson may interfere with this pace. Teacher talk is discussed in the following section.

3.3.5 Teacher talk

Teacher talk as Prusak et al. (2005) identify, is the effective communication performed by the teacher in the classroom setting, to establish communicative interaction with the learners such as asking them questions, and responding to FL learners on the way they use the language. There is a great deal of variance with regard to the notion of ‘teacher talk time’ in an EFL language classroom. Pcolinska (2009) points out that some teachers agree that teacher talk offers an effective input for language communication interaction in classrooms for all but the most advanced students. However, others hold that while it might be a very beneficial technique in the early language learning stages, extensive teacher talk should be abandoned as soon as possible (e.g., Lynch, 1996).

Up until recently, too much teacher talk was assumed to be a risk in EFL classrooms and for teachers of languages. Prusak et al. (2005) point out that teachers have to be cautious in considering their audience while presenting and speaking extensively in the classroom. They add that this includes pace of speech, voice and tones and vocabulary used. They advise that CIAs could last longer and teachers could maintain the time for their instructions to a minimum limit (Prusak et al., 2005; Pangrazi, 2004). This may lead to a point where they provide a learning space for L2 students to practise the language freely in a classroom setting (Cullen, 1998; Prusak et al., 2005; Pangrazi, 2004). Cullen (1998, p. 179) states, '*good teacher talk meant 'little' teacher talk, since it was thought that too much teacher talk time (TTT) deprived students of opportunities to speak*'. One of the main arguments for minimising teacher talk is that learners may practise real-life communication in the classroom when they talk to their peers in small groups, which can encourage independent learning and make the learners take some responsibility for language learning (Dagarin, 2004), as mentioned previously.

The question can be raised as to how much teacher talk should be used, and to what degree it is essential in the L2 communication classroom, bearing in mind that it might facilitate learning and encourage interaction by helping to formulate appropriate types of questions for the learners, a model of pronunciation and correct form and provide a method for reacting to learners' errors.

Cullen (1998) argues, in accordance with several previous studies (Nunan, 1989; Kumaravadivelu, 1993; Thornbury, 1996), that teacher talk in genuine communication rather than practice drills, is a gauge for evaluating communicativeness in the classroom, and is based on what is believed to comprise effective communication in real-life situations beyond the classroom. Cullen (1998) adds that authentic communication implies features such as the negotiation of meaning, as discussed previously, and the selection of topics of conversation by more than one speaker, along with a realistic motivation for combining them into effective classroom discussion. Thus, Saudi EFL learners need such a process of 'genuine communicative purpose' settings by teachers asking 'referential questions' in order to produce a communicative function and in return, teachers might give their feedback to the learners' responses either for error correction or to acknowledge answers (Cullen, 1998).

An important aspect of teacher talk may be the decision to balance the TL with selected L1 usage (Yavuz, 2012); this may happen when there is a loss of the FL learners' self-confidence in the TL classroom or as a result of learners' loss of interest, which led Yavuz's participant, an English teacher, to comment that translanguaging using the students' L1 was useful in class to activate the learners. This phenomenon will be discussed further in the following section.

3.4 The TL usage versus translanguaging, and L1 usage

Several studies have highlighted different aspects of FL learning and teaching in the classroom with regard to interaction and the use of the TL, as described above. The decision to communicate exclusively in the TL rather than resorting to some of the learners' L1 in the FL classroom has become controversial (Littlewood and Yu, 2011). Researchers (e.g. Ellis, 2005) argue that extensive use of the TL to a level to which learners need to communicate in the classroom may maximise the successful input of the L2 learned. Others (e.g. Yavuz, 2012) may advise resorting to L1 to assist the language learning process, while endeavouring to avoid L1 interference which may result in errors arising from negative L1 transfer (Cook, 2001). Moreover, Littlewood and Yu (2011) argue that through practising the TL in the language classroom in accordance with the communicative approaches of L2 teaching that might include CLT, TBL/TBLT and audio-lingual methods, learners have to think in the TL and keep away the interference of the L1.

However, some researchers believe that translanguaging could be a tool that assists in turn-taking tasks, negotiation for meaning and the development of up-to-date forms of knowledge (Blackledge and Creese, 2010; Li, 2011). Translanguaging is identified as the process in which EFL learners' and possibly their English teachers, move seamlessly among languages they are familiar with and use them for various communicative purposes (García, 2009; Anderson et al., 2017) in language classroom. The importance of the usage of the TL in the FL classroom cannot be denied and the practice of its activities to develop FL use is essential. In an argument made by Cook (2001) successful L2 acquisition depends on keeping the L2 separate from the L1. However, Cook has also argued for some use of L1. Cook (2010) states that the objective of English language teaching, for example, is not just to compel L2 learners to use the TL, as NSs but to prepare them for a distinctive level of L2 usage, potentially native-speaker-like. He justifies his argument from a multi-competence point of view that both L1 and L2 naturally exist and are attached to each

other in the L2 classroom, and L1 cannot be blocked in that particular site. Cook further explains that the language classroom is the setting of the L2 practice but not a L2 monolingual context, and if translanguaging is not used practically, L1 still remains in the EFL learners' brains and in their written style. In addition, according to Creese and Blackledge (2010), teachers can use the flexibility afforded by students' bilingualism, and their translanguaging, in order to impart ideas and to encourage transfer across the languages.

Creese and Blackledge (2010) address translanguaging pedagogies, as

‘Both languages are needed simultaneously to convey the information, ... each language is used to convey a different informational message, but it is in the bilingualism of the text that full message is conveyed’ (p. 108).

Thus, the process of translanguaging is transformative, as it integrates various personal elements of the multilingual individual in a single performance (Li, 2011). These elements include experience, environment, attitude, beliefs, and cognitive and physical ability (Li, 2011). Therefore, it could be suggested that translanguaging is increasing in appeal in terms of making the structures and practices in dual language bilingual education classrooms more flexible (Gort, 2015).

Furthermore, Macaro (2001) conducted a study with a group of student teachers to investigate the extensive rather than exclusive use of the TL in the language classroom. In the light of his findings, Macaro identified three theoretical situations of the phenomena. The positions Macaro (2001) argued were:

- a- *The virtual position*, in which the language classroom is similar to the TL setting, eliminating the use of L1 in the L2 class, which means that there is no value of the mother tongue in that setting.
- b- *The maximal situation*, in which there is less pedagogical importance placed on using L1 but the lack of teaching competence forces the teacher to switch to the students' L1.
- c- *The optimal position*, which considers that possible improvement in some L2 learning aspects can be brought about through L1 usage.

Therefore, it is fundamental to be aware of the extent of the use of L1 (Macaro, 2001), and the most important factor in the learning process in the FL classroom is the quality of

exposure to the TL and not the quantity (Dickson, 1992), which English teachers in the Saudi context ought to bear in mind. A number of studies on TL practice have supported the maximum usage of the TL (Turnbull, 2001; Turnbull and Arnett, 2002; Swain and Lapkin, 2000). Such researchers argue that the L1 may become a frame of reference, and the learners may understand the L2 more easily as it shifts from input to intake (Turnbull, 2001). Butzkamm (2003) also argues that while there is strong support for the value of translanguaging in the L2 classroom, the goal is not to reduce time for using the TL. He suggests that translanguaging is just a support tool in establishing the means of communication or may be named as the canoe in the FL classroom to carry the FL learners to the safe side of the downstream. The target in this process is not to translanguange intensively but to practise it in a principled way through carefully developing considered tactics to increase learning occasions (Cameron, 2001).

Mahmoud (2012) proposes that resorting to the students' L1 implies impatience on the part of the English teachers particularly in teaching vocabulary, deficiency in the L2 teachers' preparation or possibly their inability to use the TL. NNS and NS language teachers may vary in regard to the use of the TL and the native language due to their own awareness of the learners' L1 (Reynolds-Case, 2012). It is perhaps important then to look at the role of the NS and NNS teachers in the EFL teaching in this research, as they might play an essential role in presenting the TL to their learners (Reynolds-Case, 2012). It is suggested that the implementation of a post-method teaching approach could potentially support these students to use the TL in real-life communicative situations, as discussed in section 3.2.5. NNS can be, as Reynolds-Case proposes, involved in or separated from the learners' culture and language, which will influence their capability to sense the parts of the TL, including grammar, where students may struggle because the teachers themselves may have had an identical learning experience. In the following section, the NS and NNS teachers will be discussed, as English language teachers in the Saudi context might show the similarities and differences of the characteristics and features that will be argued.

3.5 Non-native speaker (NNS) and Native speaker (NS) using the TL versus the L1

According to Reynolds-Case, (2012), a number of studies have been carried out comparing NNS and NS language teachers in the TL classroom. Cook (2005) is in favour of the use of L2 in the language classroom, where teachers teach a language that is not their L1.

However, he also argues that although NNS teachers may have a fewer advantages, in terms of through lexical and syntactical knowledge, perhaps being less confident and competent in the usage of the TL. These NNS teachers, such as the ones who were Arabic-speaking or local Saudi English language teachers, may be better prepared pedagogically than their NS counterparts, as they have been TL learners themselves (Cook, 2005), and thus represent the expanding circle of Kachru's (1985) global English circle model, as they use English as a FL (please see Figure 2.1).

Furthermore, it is argued that the FL classroom is often a location where NNS teachers share an L1 with his/her learners, which may be helpful to overcome any difficulty, which FL learners may encounter through explanation in the L1 (Cook, 2005). Thus, as Reynolds-Case (2012) suggests, at the point where the TL fails, the FL learners' mother tongue is the more required tool. Reynolds-Case (2012) states that NNS teachers may be further aware of their FL learners' errors (e.g. grammar errors) as they can recognise the learners' mother tongue influencing their production and understanding of the TL. In an investigation by McNeill (2005), NNS and NS English language teachers were requested to allocate the areas in vocabularies and reading exams in the TL that their FL learners may make mistakes in. The NNS who spoke the learners' L1 were able to identify these areas accurately more than NS teachers did. However, as argued previously, Cook (2005) is against the overuse of the L1 in the TL classroom and affirms that it is the teachers' responsibility to offer as much TL as the FL classroom is the only place where FL learners may encounter the L2.

Showing the characteristics and features of the NNS teachers of the L2, however, and according to Reynolds-Case (2012), the value of the NS teachers in the support of EFL teaching is obvious due to the fact that NS may vary in their teaching behaviours from NNS. Similarly, they are expected to be a beneficial source of culture and language to learners in FL contexts (Quint Oga-Baldwin and Nakata, 2013). Bulter (2007) also discusses the same phenomenon of NS teachers presenting and teaching the 'English role model', as they speak English to the greatest extent possible, whether formal (in the classroom) or informal situations, as they do not share and often do not know the students' L1. Additionally, NS teachers may usually practise the '*colloquial language*' or what can be considered as a non-grammatical form of the TL in everyday situational speech (Medgyes, 1992).

However, NS teachers are not necessarily only from majority English-speaking countries such as the UK, the USA or Canada, as there are others who could be considered similar to ‘native’ English speakers despite being technically bilingual, such as Indian and Pakistani English teachers. This is due to the outer circle countries (e.g., India and Pakistan) that these represent, having gone through a period of colonisation having been influenced by the linguistics and culture features of inner circle countries, notably the UK (Kachru, 1985; Kachru et al., 2009) (please see Figure 2.1). This resulted in the official bodies of the colonised governments or countries from which these English teachers come from, using English as their official language in their legal and education systems (Kachru, 1985; Kachru et al., 2009).

The origin of the English teachers, whether NS and NNS, and their teaching experience might be a key factor in introducing the TL culture in the language classroom. The TL culture will be addressed in the following section.

3.6 The reference of the TL culture in the L2 classroom

When discussing the place of the TL in the language classroom, it is important to highlight the culture of the context investigated. Nevo (1998, p. 34), in relation to Saudi culture, states that

‘the collective identity of most Muslim Arabs of the Middle East incorporates three elements: the Islamic, the Arab and in the narrow, local sense, the national, which still consists of traditional factors such as tribe, extended family or geographical region’.

However, Saudi EFL learners do not view English learning as a threat to their religious identity (Elyas, 2008) but consider it as a method of developing ‘*ones’ culture experience*’ (Abed Al-Haq and Smadi, 1996, p.313). Moreover, the issue of culture and language and their relation in the FL classroom has been a controversial matter in the recent past; however, the contention revolves around the curricula, language learners and language teachers (Kramsch, 2013). For example, Sybing (2010) states that language teachers believe that culture is significant and unavoidable when it comes to learning in the TL classroom. Other scholars argue that the local environment can be the starting place for language learning (Dogancay-Aktuna, 2005; Holliday, 2005). Dogancay-Aktuna (2005) argues that it is necessary to take the EFL learners’ sociocultural context into consideration regarding selecting materials and pedagogical teaching approaches, because it may be a

challenge to disregard the EFL students' expectations and learning experiences, which they usually bring them to the L2 class. English native speaker teachers are assumed to be only teaching the TL but they also embody the TL culture, as they are from another culture and different from their EFL students (Kramsch, 2013; Sybing, 2010). This may generate challenges to the language teaching and learning processes (Kramsch, 2013), and needs a call for more awareness about their EFL students' context (Sybing, 2010), as they differ in culture. This would lead NS teachers to choose '*to stick to the safe ground and taught grammar and vocabulary*' (Kramsch, 2013, p. 59).

Similarly, DeCapua and Wintergerst (2004) focus on the relationship of language teaching and culture, and highlight the expectations for language teachers to include teaching about the culture of the TL and its relation to other cultures in their lesson, generally raising awareness of cultural elements. In order to understand the relation between the TL and culture, Kramsch (2013, p.63) argues that

'In the dyad 'language and culture', language is not a bunch of arbitrary linguistic forms applied to a cultural reality that can be found outside of language, in the real world. Without language and other symbolic systems, the habits, beliefs, institutions, and monuments that we call culture would be just observable realities, not cultural phenomena. To become culture, they have to have meaning. It's the meaning that we give to foods, gardens and ways of life that constitute culture'.

Many educational establishments, particularly universities and colleges in countries such as Saudi Arabia prefer to appoint English NS teachers as language instructors and educators (Kramsch, 2013; Carless, 2006). The rationale for this is as Kramsch states, is that NS teachers are an 'authentic' connection to the TL and its culture; however, they need to be aware of the students' context, as discussed previously. Kramsch (2013) also argues that the presence of the NS teacher in the EFL classroom may lead to greater interactive communication in the L2 as the interaction and the behaviour of the NS teacher, that is, the way he/she speaks, acts and teaches is more natural and stimulates interaction. This is aligned with Bulter's (2007) argument that NS teachers present the English role model highlighted in section 3.5, and focus on the meaning and the informal situation. Hence, NS teachers offer linguistic, cultural and authentic materials and activities of the TL that may involve authentic aspects of communication (Carless, 2006 and Sybing 2010).

Nouraldeem and Elyas (2014) point out that Saudi EFL students believe that any language is a key to its culture, and the simplest way to be aware of this culture is to learn and know its language, which could, importantly, save their face when speaking it. Nouraldeem and

Elyas argue that these EFL learners wish to learn English to understand more about Western cultures in order to communicate effectively with NSs, particularly their teachers in the first instance, which makes them willingly engage in class; otherwise, it may have an effect on their affective filter. The following section refers to Krashen's model (the Affective Filter Hypothesis), which is related to some aspects of the L2 learning in this investigation.

3.7 Affective Filter Hypothesis in the language classroom

Krashen formulated his hypotheses in the 1980s but they are still used to describe learners' language processes and usage. Krashen explains that '*language learning refers to the conscious knowledge of a second language, knowing the rules, being aware of them, and being able to talk about them*' (Bahrani, 2011, p. 281). Krashen's Affective Filter hypothesis states that several variables, such as self-confidence, motivation and anxiety, are involved in L2 acquisition. It is logical that a L2 learner who is self-confident and highly motivated will be less anxious about speaking the language than a learner who lacks confidence and/or motivation (Krashen, 1984). According to Krashen (1984), the latter case can result in a learner developing a 'mental block', which in turn makes learning the L2 arduous.

Krashen contends initially that there is an affective filter, which can be a part of the student's inner processing system that subliminally register incoming language in accordance with the students' attitudes, requirements, emotional states and motives (Dulay et al., 1982). However, the power of the filter varies according to each individual learner's personalities (Gregg, 1984). In other words, Krashen (1984, p. 23) affirms, '*the less self-confident person may understand the input but not acquire*'.

In any educational setting, it is crucial that the learner is taught in a comfortable and unthreatening atmosphere. Clement et al. (1994) indicate that self-confidence and a positive attitude in the context of using an L2 (e.g. English) are generally considered to be essential to a successful L2 learning process. These may be particularly important in a language classroom because, in order for both input and output of a language to take place successfully, learners must feel that they can take risks and make errors (Bilash, 2009). Regarding self-confidence in practising the L2 Clement et al. (1994, p. 422) argue '*in terms of low anxious affect and high self-perception, L2 competence would develop*'. In an

atmosphere conducive to learning a L2, no learner must feel excluded or that it is unacceptable to make a mistake, since this is a natural and unavoidable part of language learning. When introducing the importance of speech in the classroom, it is essential to generate an atmosphere in which the students commence speaking in the TL.

Krashen (1984) contends that the filter develops with age, and leads some learners to encounter difficulties in acquiring and learning a L2, as the filter holds them back through a fear of making a mistake in the TL and embarrassing themselves. Therefore, in accordance with Krashen's (1984) claims, Bahrani (2011) indicates that if the affective filter is high, L2 acquisition will be prevented, whereas a low affective filter assists this acquisition.

In addition, Rabab'ah (2005) states that Arab EFL learners such as Saudi students attempt to avert some types of challenges when involved in communicative situations in the TL due to their lack of competence. Rabab'ah explains that this avoidance includes incorrect forms of sentence construction or word order (grammatical errors) and using gestures to express meaning and so forth, as this could prevent them from possibly losing face or looking foolish. In the following part, challenges such as errors and language anxiety, which are the types of the affective factors that EFL students may encounter which affect their use of the TL will be addressed further to explore potential causes and possible solutions of these negative phenomena in the L2 learning process in the L2 classroom.

3.8 English language learners' errors in using the TL

Kaur (2003) examined several studies of Arab students learning English, concluding that Arab English language learners are generally not able to achieve the targeted level of proficiency in using the TL in the FL classroom, in spite of an extensive period of formal English learning. Initially, it is necessary to provide some information on the issues that Arab language learners in general may encounter before discussing Saudi learners specifically, as there are a number of similarities between them, which will be discussed in further detail later. It is important to be aware of the Saudi EFL students' errors and the challenges they might experience in the language classroom in order to locate their needs to contribute in the development of the students in using the TL and provide them with the suitable correction if needed.

English language-learning problems were identified in a conference that took place in Jordan in 1983 and have been addressed from then until time of writing (Javid et al., 2012). According to Mukattash (1983), Arab English language learners may make errors leading to difficulties in performing in the TL, these errors involve in particular, spelling, pronunciation, syntax, phonology and morphology. Mukattash (1983) debates that this results in their being unable to convey meaning effectively either in an academic setting or in everyday communication. Hasan (2000) found that Arab learners experience also listening difficulties according to the speakers' characteristics, listeners' attitudes and listening texts featured at the university level. In addition, it has been reported that Arab students' language proficiency level is lower than that of other EFL learners around the world (Sahu, 1999). Hence, there are a number of obstacles to students' competence in communication and ability to express themselves in the L2 (Rabab'ah, 2005). This section will now discuss the two most common errors that Arab and Saudi EFL students make.

Errors in Semantics

Semantic errors are usually related to the (L1). Al-Shomrani (2010) states that the sources of semantic errors differ according to the strategy used; for example, translating from Arabic can result in lexical choice and collocation errors, the application of Arabic rules to English can lead to derivativeness, the Arabic sound system, such as the absence of /p/ and /v/ in distortion can result in spelling errors, and so forth. Al-shomrani (2010) claims that these errors are due to inadequate knowledge of the L2, which leads Arab learners to make these errors in the FL, together with other errors, such as in pronunciation.

Pronunciation Errors

As Arab learners may also make serious errors in pronunciation, this will tend to contribute to increasing the likelihood of miscommunication in the EFL classroom. According to Wahba (1998), many Arab speaking learners encounter difficulties regarding pronunciation, particularly in stresses and intonations. For example, with the word 'exactly', Egyptian EFL learners stress the last syllable of the word and may generate another syllable. Saudi learners may stress the word 'stopped' and add another syllable as well. Wahba (1998) attributes this to the difference between Arabic and English in pronunciation, which indicates to the interference and influence of L1 that Saudi EFL students usually experience when using the TL.

In the context of KSA, learners experience the same problems identified above. Javid et al. (2012) state that a number of studies have revealed that while the level of English of English language learners in KSA is very low in comparison to learners in developed countries, it is similar to that in other Asian and Arab contexts, despite the considerable length of time that learners in KSA spend studying English (approximately 850 hours over six years), as mentioned previously.

Furthermore, Al-Nujaidi (2003) points out that Saudi secondary graduate learners who are about to enter university may only have gained between 500 and 700 words of vocabulary in total, i.e., an average of around 100 words per year. According to Al-Seghayer (2011), these Saudi learners are aware of their poor knowledge of the English language and that their level will not permit them to communicate effectively in the TL. Al-Seghayer (2011) refers to the investigation carried out in 2009 by the Cambridge Examination Centre (CEC) of English language proficiency, the result of which showed that Saudi learners ranked 39th out of 40 in general and academic tests.

There are several reasons for the issues encountered in English language learning in the Arab context in general and in the Saudi context in particular. One major reason is revealed in the responses from students at a Saudi university in a study by Javid et al. (2012), to the effect that there is no communicative interaction in the classroom. The other reasons are related to learners being instrumentally motivated only to pass exams (Javid et al., 2012). Rabab'ah (2005) affirms that the lack of TL awareness that the EFL students in the Saudi context, is considered to be another reason for these issues.

3.8.1 Error corrective-feedback

As noted above, L2 learners may encounter difficulties in attempting to explain themselves or in becoming involved in oral activities, and they are prone to mistakes during any kind of conversation, discussion or negotiation, particularly in a L2 classroom setting (Rabab'ah, 2005). The teacher's responsibility is to provide L2 learners with the appropriate correction in terms of accuracy and fluency at the appropriate time, when it is most effective (Lightbown and Spada, 2013). Errors may represent a way for individuals to learn and to realise what works and what does not, as discussed in section 3.7. In addition, Scrivener (2005) states that analyses of what types of errors learners are making can provide insight and help to determine the L2 learners' level of achievement. It is the

obligation of the teachers to give attention to the techniques of correction; rather than providing students with simple and quick answers, the teacher should allow them to offer their own self-correction, which helps them in their L2 learning progress (Scrivener, 2005).

Teachers may have to determine suitable moments for error correction and be able to recognise whether or not the learners understand the corrections. Lyster and Ranta (1997, p. 46) suggest six various types of corrective feedback. These classifications are as follows:

1. *Explicit Correction*. This refers ‘to the explicit provision of the correct form’. The teacher introduces the correct form and explicitly refers to the learner’s mistake.
2. *Recasts* refer to the teacher’s reformulation either of part of the learners’ speech or all of it. Spada and Flöhlich (1995) point out that these reformulations may be considered as paraphrasing the learners’ utterances and making a slight change to them, referring to the correction. Lyster and Ranta (1997) add that some types of recast concentrate on only a single word, while some can involve translation as a response to the learners’ use of their mother tongue. However, translation would be a rare occurrence and would play the same role as recasts (Lyster and Ranta, 1997).
3. *Clarification requests* refer to the type of correction feedback that deals with difficulties in both accuracy and comprehensibility, and feedback is included only as a request for clarification when the learner’s error occurs. For example, a teacher may say ‘pardon’, or ‘sorry?’ to request clarification or he/she may formulate a clarification request as ‘What do you mean by.’.
4. *Metalinguistic feedback* involves information, comment, or questions that refer to there being an error somewhere in the learner’s utterance, without, however, specifically indicating the error (e.g., ‘Can you find the error?’).
5. *Elicitation* is when teachers attempt to draw the correct form of sentences or words immediately from the learners using three techniques. Initially, a teacher can request a completion of an utterance, pausing to allow his/her learners to finish their sentences. Secondly, teachers may practise the interrogative style, such as by asking ‘yes’ or ‘no’ questions or ‘How do we pronounce this in English?’ in order to stimulate the learners into giving the correct form. Thirdly, teachers may have recourse to requesting formulations and paraphrasing of forms and speech from the learners.

6. *Repetition* occurs when teachers repeat the learners' utterances while modifying their intonation to indicate the error.

In regard to the oral production (communication) of descriptive corrective feedback (CF) in a L2 adult classroom, Doughty (1994a) conducted a study considering various kinds of teacher feedback and discovered that the most persistent kinds involved requests for illustrations, repetition and paraphrasing. However, other studies revealed that teacher feedback focused mainly on emphasising repetition. Furthermore, research studies examining turn taking between the teacher and the learner as a type of error correction (e.g. Ellis et al. 2006; Loewen, 2005) discovered that a focus on a long pause after the learner's statement, allows the teacher to provide the accurate linguistic form to the learner, who may then practise it in his/her speech.

Encouraging a respectful risk-taking community within the classroom is another principle that Moeller and Roberts (2013) indicate as important for learners to develop the TL confidence. A mutual respectful community among learners and between language instructors and their learners encourages a low affective filter environment in which learners feel free to use the TL without apprehension (Moeller and Roberts, 2013). Communication in the language classroom is an actual strategy of risk-taking an essential skill for a FL learner to acquire (Moeller and Roberts, 2013). The point of risk-taking as a performance strategy lies not only in taking the risk but in learning from the '*failure*' (Brown, 2000). Constructing a risk-taking respectful environment demands time and a lot of practice (Moeller and Roberts, 2013). Thus, learners and teachers may attempt to adopt a number of strategies and to take risks while avoiding FL anxiety, as will be discussed in the following part of this section.

While errors indicate language learning, and progress, there is still a perceived stigma to the production of errors by the learners, which may give rise to reluctance to use TL in interaction and language anxiety. The language anxiety is argued in the following section.

3.9 Language anxiety in the TL communicative classroom

Language anxiety may have always been an issue in speaking a foreign language (FL) in the classroom as the learners find themselves in an insecure, high-risk situation. Hashemi (2011) states that EFL students often demonstrate insecurity, i.e. feeling nervous, anxious

and stressed, when involved in English language learning and speaking, as it causes a 'mental block' to learning English. Language anxiety is derived from learners' personal beliefs during learning, or following a test or another type of assessment, which results in weak communicative interaction performance in the language learning classroom setting (Du, 2009). These perceptions are associated with the TL communication setting, and with other people such as teachers and peers (Hashemi, 2011).

Tallon (2009) suggests that the language learning process outcomes can be influenced by several variables and individual differences that affect learners, for example: social context, learning style, cognitive abilities and personality characteristics. He further points out that the most essential affective factor in FL learning is foreign language anxiety, which can be defined as a combination of self-consciousness, emotions and perceptions and behaviour connected to classroom language learning. Stroud and Wee (2006) give an example of anxiety and identity in the English language classroom, reporting that a teenage learner stated that he was not used to speaking aloud in the classroom in front of his peers, due to shyness, embarrassment and fear of the possibility of making mistakes. Stroud and Wee (2006) state that this is an indication of competence-based language anxiety. Competence based anxiety is presumed to be the FL anxiety that appears to FL learners due to insecure abilities in the language, thus, they are anxious as to how their TL will be assessed by his/her teacher and peers (Stroud and Wee, 2006). Stroud and Wee presume that all FL anxiety in the L2 classroom is a competence based. In the next section causes of L2 anxiety when using the TL will be discussed in depth to observe what may cause this anxiety to FL learners in the language classroom, which can be also linked to what Saudi EFL students due to their often poor performance in using the TL.

3.9.1 Causes and effects of foreign language anxiety in using and learning the TL

Horwitz (2001) suggests that poor command of the target language - English, for example - is a result or a cause of FL anxiety. In addition, in the context of EFL, there is a salient cause for the FL learners to be silent in English language learning, which is that they lack English-speaking experience (Wu, 2010). Learners displaying this lack of engagement generally suffer from diminished self-confidence in their spoken TL due to their language anxiety when it comes to using English as a vehicle for communication (Wu, 2010). Oral performance and activities may lead to classroom language anxiety as mentioned

previously. Young (1999) indicates that verbal activities or presentations in front of the class can generate a source of high-level language anxiety in the FL classroom. Different types of anxiety have been identified and are described below. However, it is important to note that the level of all behaviours mentioned varies from one learner to another (Du, 2009).

1- Communication apprehension

Horwitz et al. (1986) classify FL anxiety into several categories, one of which is communication apprehension (CA). Communication apprehension refers to a fear of communication that occurs when interacting with others either in the classroom or a natural context (Wu, 2010). Furthermore, communication apprehension is a principal disadvantage that may harm learners' L2 acquisition (Du, 2009). The usual resort of individuals such as silence, timidity and restraint may be involved in CA. This level of anxiety may therefore have a very strong impact on the affective filter (Krashen, 1984) as mentioned previously.

2- Language Test anxiety

Another classification that Horwitz et al. (1986) refer to is Language Test anxiety. Test anxiety is the fear of exams, assignments or tasks, or quizzes carried out to assess learners' levels in the TL learning process (Wu, 2010). This kind of anxiety may arise for a number of reasons. Du (2009) suggests that there might be a previous unfavourable experience in taking tests or learners may have experienced failure in tests or performed poorly in them, which can assist in the growth of anxiety. Reduction in self-confidence, worries about failure and other pessimistic thoughts may contribute to anxiety about L2 tests. Du (2009) argues that learners might spend time imagining themselves in a negative situation by concentrating on the fear of failure rather than focusing on preparing for a successful outcome. This is may be a result of feeling unworthy, which comes from unreasonable expectations to perform well in test situations due to the learners' self-esteem being bound to the outcomes of academic tasks (Du, 2009).

3- Fear of negative evaluation

In addition, fear of negative evaluation, as Horwitz et al. (1986) indicate, is also considered as another important category of FL anxiety. Aydin (2008) identifies fear of

negative evaluation as the learners' feeling of being unable of making the appropriate 'social impression' with concerns about evaluation by other individuals (teacher, peers) and avoidance of evaluative events. The main sources of this kind of FL anxiety are based on perceived passive judgments by other people (classmates, teachers) making negative comments/evaluations on others making spelling or oral mistakes (Aydin, 2008).

Kitano (2001) further points out that fear of negative evaluation in the FL classroom is the main source of FL anxiety, which is worthy of further investigation. This could also include Saudi EFL students at the university level who are at the same level as the students contributing in this study, as they usually experience this issue, which can be a main cause of their language anxiety in speaking the TL and learning English, as Alhaisoni (2012) argues.

There are other factors that may contribute to language anxiety for FL speakers, gender and age among them. Aydin (2008) claims that female FL learners are often much more anxious in the language learning process than are males, particularly regarding tests. Similarly, teenage FL learners show greater language anxiety in all the categories mentioned previously in the FL classroom than older learners do; they may also experience greater anxiety of not being accepted by others and fear making errors more than do adults (Aydin, 2008). Neither of those classifications is relevant to this study, which concerned young male students in their first year at university/college but the *'social status of the speaker and the interlocutor, a sense of power relations between them could also be an important factor in causing language anxiety for L2/FL speakers'* (Hashemi, 2011, p. 1813), which may be also a factor in Saudi students' reluctance to speak.

In addition, another relevant factor relating to the study is that FL learners do not use the FL (e.g. English) in any context other than in the language classroom, where it is a core subject in their education (Warden and Lin, 2000). This is because there is rarely any immediate linguistic necessity for them to practise English in their daily lives (Peng, 2007) and therefore they experience anxiety in using the TL in this special context. However, there are procedures that might assist EFL students can adopt to avoid language anxiety, this will be argued in the next section.

3.9.2 Avoidance of FL anxiety in the TL/L2 classroom

FL learners may attempt to practise different strategies seeking to decrease their L2 anxiety either in the formal setting of the language classroom or within the community if they are staying in the FL speaking country (Pellegrino, 2005). Pellegrino (2005) classifies these strategies as, first, they may practise *self-talk* to prepare and encourage themselves that they may adequately produce the L2 and secondly to ensure a feeling of security in using the TL/L2. Thirdly, FL learners prefer to select a comfortable environment or interlocutor with whom they may feel secure. These strategies may be difficult to ensure in the language classroom, particularly with a variety of learners and teachers. One of the aims of the study was what teachers did to create an environment where learners felt comfortable to speak.

Gregersen and Horwitz (2002) argue that some of other ways that may relieve language anxiety are for teachers to establish an efficient learning environment, clarifying learners' mistakes in an appropriate way. This can be done, as Gregersen and Horwitz suggest, by having a discussion about the common mistakes of learners without singling out individuals, encouraging realistic expectations and limiting times of activities (pace).

Studies have shown that self-confidence is an essential influential variable in learners' success in acquiring a foreign language. It has been suggested by MacIntyre et al. (1998) that learners' willingness to attempt to communicate in a FL is significantly enhanced by self-confidence. In addition, Krashen (1984), in his affective filter hypothesis, noted that the existence or absence of factors causing high and low filter motivation, language anxiety and self-confidence, as mentioned previously, may influence, either positively or negatively, the achievement of language acquisition goals in the FL classroom. MacIntyre et al. (1998) indicate that self-confidence and willingness to communicate (WTC) in the TL is related to learners' perception about themselves in regard to the desire to communicate and communicative competence in interaction.

3.10 Willingness to Communicate

L2 learners' spontaneous oral production in the TL communicative interaction classroom appears to be linked to their WTC in a TL. According to Barraclough et al. (1988), individuals vary with regard to the amount of speech they are willing to be involved in,

although, with regard to the language classroom, speaking is assumed to be an aim of interpersonal communication in the TL. Furthermore, Barraclough et al. (1988) and McCrosky and Richmond (1990) suggest that cultural principles governing people's communication behaviour can play an important role in WTC in terms of the desire to communicate or not, as is experienced in the KSA. Individual perception is also a factor that influences WTC. According to Ehrman (1990) and Ehrman and Oxford (1990), different types of personality may show varying degrees of willingness to learn and communicate in a L2 in addition to varying levels of efficiency and /or confidence in practising communication in a second or FL. Pellegrino (2005) also illustrates that when L2 learners are intrinsically motivated they speak the TL often but when they are not, teachers may have to be persistent in their efforts to support them to speak. English teachers' persistence in the L2 classroom will be discussed in the following section.

3.11 English teachers' persistence in the TL classroom

L2 teachers perhaps wonder and ask themselves as educators 'what [can] they know and practice if their students resist?' (Vetter et al., 2012). There are several justifications in research for these attitudes to arise (Brookfield, 2006). For example, research reveals that EFL learners may have had a poor previous experience which bears no relevance to the lessons planned and executed by their present teacher (Bryant and Bates, 2010; Benson, 2010). This resistance may be, as Holt (1984) proposes, a result of the tediousness of assignments that may not be equivalent to their abilities. Students may not understand the materials used or some students may be extremely enthusiastic which may hinder other learners to be responsive and receptive etc.

L2 teachers' persistence, as Vetter et al. (2012) discuss, also relates to the strategies FL teachers use, discussed earlier, when they encounter reluctance and to enable students to meet challenges, which may involve risk-taking to overcome their nervousness in the L2 class.

Similarly, one of most important strategies, as well as persistence with the L2 learners, is to build a trusting relationship with them (i.e. sharing interests and personal conversations); however, patience is also important, as it may take some time to succeed (Bryant and Bates, 2010; Benson, 2010; Holt 1984). Therefore, the teacher has to give the L2 students some space in face of this resistance and illustrate to them that errors play one

of the essential roles in the L2 learning process, in order to build their self-confidence (Vetter et al., 2012). Building a trusting relationship with students is a significant factor in the language learning and teaching process. This will be discussed further below.

3.12 Teachers' Connectedness with the L2 learners

Iljazi and Alija (2013) suggest that the relationship between teachers and learners may have particular importance in higher education (HE). Decision makers in education establishments, students and their parents emphasise that EFL students need a teacher who possesses knowledge, competence in a variety of ELT aspects in language education and is caring towards his/her students (Zhao, 2009). Furthermore, Erickson (1985) confirms that high quality teachers choose and plan lesson materials, guide learners to incorporate these materials in a memorable way, assures efficiency in his/her methods and used strategies of punctuality, maintaining mental inquisitiveness and developing independent learning.

As teachers have to manage and organise a number of teaching aspects in the classroom, including planning teaching approaches and materials and assessing students, there is another significant element in teaching that teachers have to bear in mind, which is 'caring' (Iljazi and Alija, 2013). Nodding (1988) highlights and demonstrates the importance of the teachers' 'care' for their students; that is, being respectful, having interest and compassion.

Iljazi and Alija (2013) conducted a study on university learners, which showed a highly positive attitude from the participants. Their teachers' caring, as Iljazi and Alija discuss, was a great influence on students' contribution to active learning in class, and resulted in the students' success. In the same study, Iljazi and Alija interviewed the teachers and found a powerful connection between the length of teachers' experience and 'caring', and that long teaching experience could positively enhance and encourage that caring. Hence, Iljazi and Alija recommend that teachers should boost the care of their learners, putting further focus on supporting them after class times. Additionally, they advise generating a favourable environment during the class and lessons that stimulate the learners, make them comfortable and confident to communicate (Iljazi and Alija, 2013) in the TL. A study conducted by Al Asmari (2013) involved Saudi EFL students at the university level, similar to those in this study. Al Asmari (2013, p. 2297) reports that students '*prefer to have friendly atmosphere in class and revealed that they prefer those teachers who make learning fun and an interesting activity*' in the TL classroom.

3.13 Conclusion

The review of the literature in this chapter shows how L2 learning and teaching in the language classroom plays an important role in supporting EFL students to become involved in communication through the use of the TL. The most recent teaching approaches and methods, e.g. CLT, TBL and post-method teaching, which can appropriately meet the needs of the EFL learners, could contribute to activating interaction through the use of the TL, as well as involving the EFL students in greater engagement in the language classroom. The literature reviewed in this chapter shows that extensive exposure to the TL, which includes CIAs, is an essential factor in developing the L2 of the EFL students through the employment of a variety of motivational CIAs such as group work activities, role-plays and game-based activities. However, the use of the TL and CIAs can encompass benefits and challenges for both English teachers and EFL students, as has also been discussed in this chapter. The literature reviewed in this chapter also argues for particular principles and strategies in TL use, which are considered as part of the major overview of this research, as they offer strategies, which may be helpful for teachers using the TL in the FL classroom and how extensive use of the TL can present TL cultural references. Furthermore, it is important to take into account that in order to present these CIAs in suitable and effective methods to the students using the post-method teaching approaches, considerations such as relevance, pace, teacher talk, and the creation of a positive atmosphere in the classroom, ought to be taken into account.

Translanguaging and the use of the students' L1 with the TL in the language classroom can be either a support or a barrier to developing L2 communication according to the extent of usage, as it depends on the quality of TL (English) exposure and not just the quantity. The chapter also addressed the comparison and the value of both types of teacher (i.e., NNS and NS) in respect of L2 learning and teaching i.e. linguistics features, errors in speaking, teaching techniques and practices used.

Krashen's monitor model dealing with the Affective Filter Hypothesis, which suggests that variables in L2 learning and acquisition such as self-confidence, motivation and language anxiety, appeared to be reflected in the observations carried out in the EFL classroom in this study. The affective filter may be at a high level and possibly generate, as this chapter highlights, challenges that imply errors that the EFL students could make, or possibly the CF that teachers may apply in the FL classroom. Language anxiety, which is argued in this

chapter as comprising three types, has an effect on the TL use. It also presents methods of avoiding language anxiety, which encompasses the characteristics and persistence of their teachers. Such characteristics include caring and connectedness, which can establish an appropriate and comfortable learning environment, as the teacher takes full responsibility for the learning and teaching processes and his/her learners' concerns. The presence or absence of these characteristics in the teachers participating in this study will be investigated. The themes generated from the data in the study that are related to the literature and theories mentioned in this chapter will be discussed in Chapters Five, Six and Seven. The following chapter will discuss the methodology employed in this research.

Chapter Four: Methodology of the research

4.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to provide justification for the selection of the research design, methodology and an illustration of the method adopted to gather the data and their analysis in this research. The rationale for these choices will be highlighted. Details of the institutions visited and the procedures followed to secure access and obtain approval to enter the sites from the gatekeepers of these institutions will be provided. This chapter will also provide reasons for selecting the sample population, the educational establishments and the environment of the study. It will then reveal how the findings of this research could be considered valid and reliable, highlight the ethical consideration of this study and refer to the data analysis and its theoretical framework in this qualitative research. The main research questions are as follows:

- 1)- What are the main approaches to teaching and learning in universities and colleges in Saudi Arabia?
- 2)- How do students and teachers perceive these approaches to English language teaching in supporting English learning, particularly development of the use of the TL?
- 3- Which practices of the EFL learning and teaching in the classrooms appear to support or inhibit the students in practising communicative interaction activities using English?

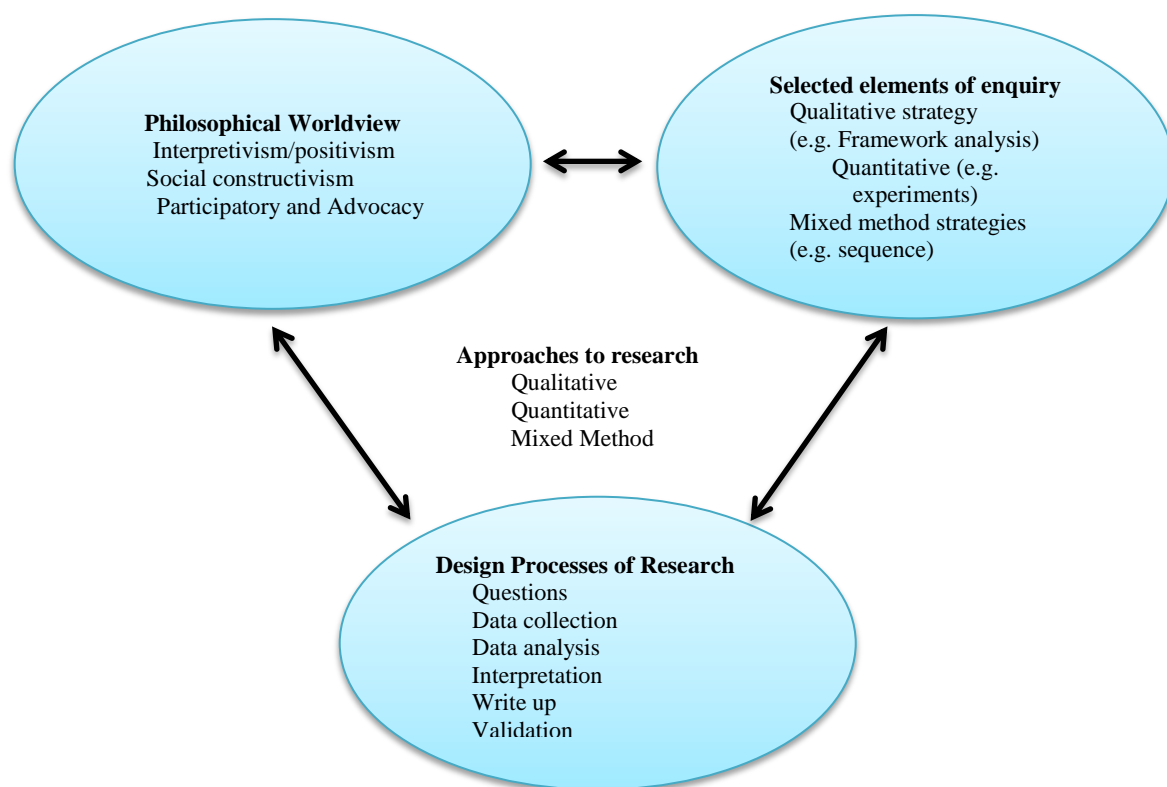
The following section will address the philosophical stance of this research and lead to the approach taken in this study.

4.2 Research philosophy and approach

The research approach and design should be the essential plan of any research. The research design is identified as the proposal to perform research and implicates the philosophical crossways, strategies of investigation and a particular method (Creswell, 2009). In any type of research design, a researcher ought to highlight number of crucial factors that could play a significant role in research methodology such as (i) the

philosophical stance, (ii) the employment of strategies (methodology) and (iii) the data collection methods (Creswell, 2009).

Figure 4. 1 General Inquiring strategies components, adapted from Creswell (2009, p. 5)



According to Saunders et al. (2009) there are two main paradigms in research philosophy - interpretivism and positivism. In the view of Guba and Lincoln (1994, p. 108), a paradigm is

‘a set of basic beliefs or assumptions [...] It represents a worldview that defines for its holder the nature of the world, the individuals in it and the range of possible relationships to that world and its part’.

With regard to these two research paradigms, positivism tests issues against a pre-determined hypothesis, interpretivism explores and investigates them (Anderson, 2009). In the interpretivist paradigm, a meaningful reality is built through the researcher’s collaboration with those with whom s/he interacts such as teachers and students (Guba and Lincoln, 2011).

Every research paradigm, as Scotland (2012) explains has its respective ontological and epistemological presumptions. The ontology and epistemology of different paradigms

differ in their assumptions about the nature of knowledge and reality (Scotland, 2012). In this study, I selected an interpretivist paradigm. Interpretivism is based on an ontology of relativism (Scotland, 2012). The epistemology of interpretivism is considered as a kind of subjectivism that relies on exploring perceptions and understanding of real-life phenomena (Scotland, 2012). A number of different individuals might build meanings of phenomenon in various ways (Crotty, 1998). Knowledge and meaning are built in, and arise out of engagement between individuals and their real lives and experiences (Crotty, 1998).

The purpose of interpretivism is to bring awareness of unclear social strengths and foundations (Scotland, 2012). The methodology of the interpretivist paradigm can be a subject of prudence and understanding of attitudes. It illustrates actions that could be highlighted by the participants through open-ended interviews and semi-focused classroom observations (Scotland, 2012), that is, in terms of their process, as conducted in this present research. This creates a *qualitative research design*, and therefore, could be considered to offer evidential and rich outcomes, and might enhance the achievement of validity and reliability in the investigation (Cohen et al., 2007). In this study, I judged that interpretivism could be appropriate to this research and adopted this paradigm. In this present research, the interaction between myself and the research participants lead to the exploration of different perspectives on the potential effects of different approaches to L2 teaching and learning and the use of the TL in communicative situations.

As part of interpretivist paradigm, an inductive approach has been chosen. This involves theory-building and is appropriate when researchers are concerned with exploration and explanation rather than testing hypotheses (Saunders et al., 2009). Strauss and Corbin (1998; p.12) state that, by taking an inductive approach '*the researcher begins with an area of study and allows the theory to emerge from the data*'. Nunan (2003) also points out that inductivism might be a method of searching for theories and facts from an exploration of a study and incidents that may take place in the field of interest. Figure 4.2 below presents Creswell's (2009) flow chart, as well as reflecting and explaining how the inductive approach was implemented in this investigation, as it illustrates the logic of research in a qualitative study.

Figure 4. 2 The inductive logic of research in a qualitative study, adapted from Creswell (2009, p.132).

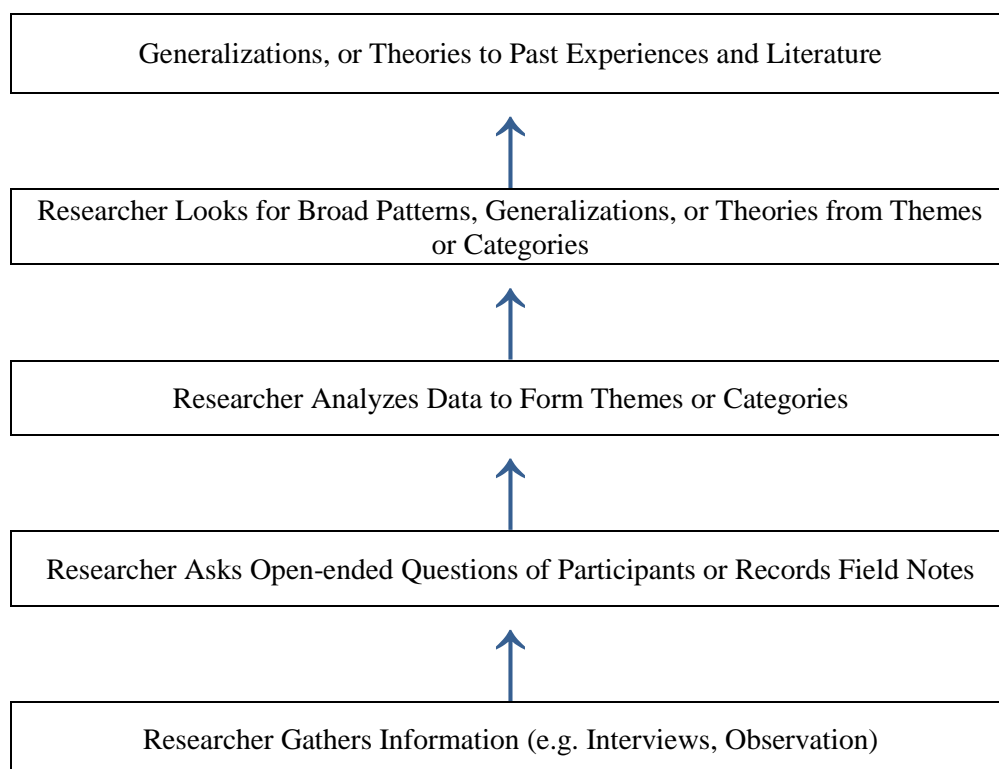


Figure 4.2 above guided me to follow the inductive approach and go through a bottom-up process, starting to gather the data through interviews and observations with the aim of eventually identifying categories and themes. This could lead to providing answers to the research questions, and overall, the rationale for my belief that qualitative research would be a reasonable approach for this study. This is concerned with investigating a single case, that is, the L2 teaching and learning approaches in KSA and what helps or hinders students' development of the target language, as it attempts to gain an understanding of and make the individual case significant (Vasilachis and Gialdino, 2009). Furthermore, this study is essentially concerned with perceptions and attitudes, which are not easy to quantify, confirming the suitability of a qualitative approach.

While quantitative research is based on data in the form of numbers, qualitative research is based on data in the form of words (Rudestam and Newton, 2000). Qualitative research examines subjects in greater depth than quantitative research does and is appropriate when the aim of the research is the exploration of a broad range of dimensions associated with a particular subject (Creswell, 2009). Thus, a qualitative approach is normally used to address 'how' or 'why' questions, while quantitative research is more appropriate for answering 'what' questions (Yin, 2003).

However, quantitative methods may be preferable when conducting research on a wide scale, as the results may be more readily safely generalised; the generalisability of the results of qualitative research may be limited, although they may provide greater details of the reality (Creswell, 2009). The strengths of qualitative research, as Silverman (2014) argues, are its capability to investigate phenomena that are simply unobtainable somewhere else. Similarly, it can use *naturally occurring data* to allocate the sequence of 'how', and meanings and practices of contributors. It is then possible to use it to attempt to answer 'why' in an investigation of the wider context, from which the phenomena emerge.

Chapter 3 offered and framed the review of literature that presented the background, which helped to formulate the research questions and interview questions supported by focused classroom observations. These questions and implications focused on the involvement in communicative settings and the teaching approaches used in the classroom. Two researchers (e.g. Yoshida 2013; Al-Nofaie, 2010) have suggested that novel or communicative interactive teaching methodologies may help to bring learners to a level where they may practise the TL language, which may enhance their communication abilities and I was keen to see if they were part of the pedagogical context.

As this study focuses on examining, language teaching and learning approaches and what would be most appropriate to support the EFL learners in communicating the TL, the CLT approach, which may lead to communicative competence as discussed in Chapter Three, is one of the various teaching approaches investigated. The communicative theory which contextualised this study was developed by Hymes (1972), whose theory concentrates on a 'wider communicative competence'. This approach was developed by Hymes as an expansion of Noam Chomsky's work in the 1960s, as this was perceived to be narrow in terms of fully describing linguistic competence (Littlewood, 1983). The data collection and its process will be discussed in the next section.

4.3 The data collection process, reliability and validity

This study makes use of primary and secondary research sources. Primary data are gathered expressly for the study in hand, while secondary data have been collected previously for another purpose (Neuman, 2005). The secondary sources used in the thesis, consist of books, journals articles, and online resources, which were used to provide a contextual and theoretical framework for the study. The collection of the primary data for

this study took place at University 1, College 1 and College 2 in the western province of Saudi Arabia. The primary data were gathered through interviews and classroom observations.

Interviews can be a significant research collection instrument to collect information about a phenomenon from any type of respondents in order to achieve the research's objectives. Cohen et al. (2007) identify interviews as a tool for gathering data, which is characterised by flexibility that could allow 'multi-sensory' methods to be employed such as verbal, written, spoken and heard. Cohen et al. (2007, p. 349) add that '*the order of the interview may be controlled while still giving space for spontaneity, and the interviewer can press not only for complete answers but also for responses about complex and deep issues*'. Cohen et al. (2007) also suggest that interviews have three types of objectives. Firstly, they could be the main technique of collecting the information with a bearing on the study. Additionally, they might be selected to examine a hypothesis or propose a new one, or could be an illustrative instrument in assisting the recognition of variables and relationships. Finally, they might be used together with other methods in conducting research.

The objective of the interviews in this study was to gain directly elaborated details from the EFL university students and their teachers to identify findings on the issues regarding teachers' teaching approaches and the use of the TL in the classroom to aid their development of communicative competence. Lodico et al. (2010) state that interview questions may assist the researcher to investigate a phenomenon of his/her study interest in greater depth. Furthermore, Gillham (2000) and Ritchie and Lewis (2003) explain that face-to-face interviews could be convenient where profundity of meaning is essential and the study is focused on obtaining understanding. This could also create rich data, which could be beneficial to the target sample in regard to L2 learning and teaching. I followed the ethical guidelines, and made every effort to be friendly and ensure that the participants were as relaxed as possible so that the interview could be collaborative conversations (Cohen et al., 2007). In this research project, I had to consider some factors, such as trust and some others such as courtesy and generating naturalness in order to secure the meaning in the interviews from participants (Cohen et al., 2007).

I preferred to employ open-ended (semi-structured) interview questions with respondents. In accordance with Stringer's (2004) advice in designing open-ended questions in semi-

structured interviews, I aimed to ensure that attention was taken to form the interview questions so that the participants could express what they wished to say, instead of preparing 'leading questions'. Moreover, I believed that individual interviewing would potentially encompass various 'views and experiences' relevant to interest of the field and studies investigated, which could further result in comparisons and contrasts (Gale et al., 2013). Fourteen interview questions for the EFL students and sixteen for the other respondents, that is the teachers, were designed with care to achieve the interviews' purpose in this study; however, both versions of the questions were similar to some extent (please see appendices A3 and B3).

When deciding to employ observation as a tool of a study, the types of research questions should be taken into consideration (DeWalt and DeWalt, 2002). The DeWalts also argue that these observations could enhance the quality of the data gathering and its analysis, and furthermore, could ease the formulation of additional research questions and suggestions. Classroom observations can be a beneficial research tool to researchers because it assists in gathering 'live data' from a naturalistic site (Cohen et al., 2007). Silverman (2014) demonstrates that observation has been the choice to comprehend another culture. Classroom observations provide investigators with a way of exploring interaction between the participants and exposing how long activities might take to be practised (Schmuck, 1997). Similarly, Patton (2015) identifies that data gathered from observations include a detailed illustration of individuals' practices, actions, attitudes and full extent of personal rapports, interaction and organisational procedures.

Classroom observation is becoming a fundamental component that could potentially boost the development of English teaching in the language classroom (Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2011). Researchers such as Borich (2008) and Aubusson et al. (2007) argue that classroom observations might be to many English teachers, even to those who are competent and experienced, a disturbing and stressful procedure. This could be due to the fact that teachers may see observer/researchers as using top-down power in their observations, possibly viewing the observation in a 'subjective' way (Li, 2009), and being judgmental in their assessment of the classroom learning practices (Williams, 1989). This is why I took a non-intrusive approach during the lessons to avoid any of the issues discussed above; this will be discussed further in section 4.5.2. The interviews and observation of practice and the approaches used will be discussed in more details in section 4.5. The credibility, dependability and transferability of this research will be discussed in the following section.

4.3.1 Credibility, dependability and transferability of the study

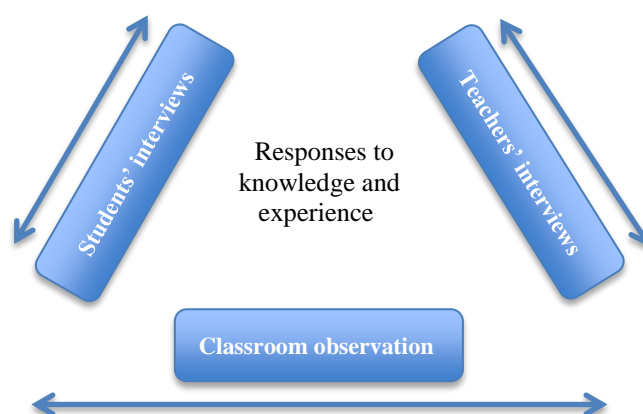
Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggest that the issues of validity and reliability in qualitative research could mainly imply standard conditions of quality such as credibility, dependability and transferability. Golafshani (2003) considered the question raised by Lincoln and Guba (1985) regarding how a researcher can convince his or her audience that the findings of a study are worthy of their attention. In order to affirm the quality of a study in any type of paradigm, it ought to be evaluated according to the particular terms of its paradigm (Healy and Perry, 2000). Because of the interpretative nature of a qualitative analysis, issues of validity and reliability may be considered less important than they would be than in quantitative research; however, in any type of research, the findings must be acceptable, believable and credible, reflecting Lincoln and Guba's (1985) criterion of credibility. Thus, it is essential in both qualitative and quantitative research that the research be tested and shown to be credible (Golafshani, 2003). Patton (2015) explains that while credibility in quantitative research relies on the construction of the instruments, in qualitative research it is the researcher him/herself who is the instrument. Similarly, Golafshani (2003) suggests that it is the ability and effort of the researcher that decide the credibility of a qualitative study. This is applicable to this present qualitative study, as I made a considerable effort as I interacted with the participants while gathering the data to obtain a rich source of information and immersed myself in the subsequent analysis of these data, examining and re-examining potential codes and themes until I felt confident that the reader would be convinced by my analysis and findings.

Golafshani (2003) reports that many qualitative researchers argue that claims for validity in qualitative research might not be viable; however, it could be necessary for them to make some qualifying tests and measures for their study.

A principal test in this research is the comparison of the main instrument method in the data collection of this study's findings, with the classroom observations regarding teaching approaches and the development of students' use of the TL in the classroom. Both sets of data were compatible to a great extent in their comparison; this could assume that the validity, which is named '*convergent validity*', in this research is constructed (Cohen et al., 2007). Moreover, the use of these two methods of data collection achieved the generation of 'triangulation' (please see Figure 4.3 below). Silverman (2014, p. 91) reveals that triangulation indicates conflation of '*multiple theories, methods, observers and empirical*

materials to produce a more accurate, comprehensible and objective representation of the object of the study'. Thus, this research embodied the employment of the use of two tools for collecting the data, which are two sets of interviews and classroom observations. Hence, classroom observation supported the interviews with both sets of participants in the study as the observations were conducted prior to the interviews. This was done to ensure that I was aware of the behaviours and attitudes of both students and teachers in the L2 classroom, before discussing with them directly in the interviews. This also aimed to secure validity in this study.

Figure 4. 3 Triangulation of two methods of collecting the data of this study



As the idea of reliability is associated mainly with quantitative research, in qualitative research, dependability is its close equivalent (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Clont, 1992; Seale, 1999). Triangulating the two methods (interviews and classroom observations) indicated above, supported the dependability of the findings (Stavros and Westberg, 2009) by gaining 'saturation' of the data in the study. Secondly, in order also to enhance dependability, the findings were gathered from a variety of groups that included 55 interviewed students, 11 interviewed teachers, 11 class visits and 235 students observed in classes in the three institutions. This number of participants delivered varied perspectives and different perceptions of the approaches used by the teachers and the development of students' use of the TL in communication in the Saudi HE language classroom. Hence, it is argued that the measures described above could ensure dependability, good quality and trustworthiness (Golafshani, 2003), through the examination and reduction of the raw data collected from the participants mentioned above, and the note-taking process, as suggested by Campbell (1996). With regard to the transferability of the study's findings, it is suggested that, as the Saudi education system is centralised, the findings could also be

applicable outside the specific context of the study, to other higher education institutes in Saudi Arabia. Further, as the education systems of all the Gulf Cooperation Council countries are similar to that of Saudi Arabia, it is suggested that the findings might also be transferable to these countries, based on Trochim's (2005) assertion that the transferability of research findings can be judged by similarities between the place, people and context. The target population of this study and sampling methods will be discussed below in the following section.

4.4 The target population of this study and sampling methods

This research project was conducted in 3 university level institutions (one university and two vocational colleges in the west province in Jeddah). All three have intensive English language programs in their foundation year. These institutions are considered among the leading universities and colleges in KSA. The rationale behind this choice was to seek the Saudi EFL students' and their English teachers' perceptions, and identify any conceptual issues (Charmaz, 2014) regarding English language learning and teaching in the L2 classroom. As these institutions are considered among the foremost in KSA, it was assumed that the standard of teaching and learning would enable me to obtain a clear picture of the approaches used to teach English which could be considered 'good practice'. In addition, I was aware that CLT and CIAs, which enables students to use and speak the TL, are generally not likely to be frequently practised in Saudi Arabia in most universities despite the policy of HE institutions regarding teaching and learning English. Please see appendices E2, E3 and E4 for more details and the policies of the institutions visited. Furthermore, see table 4.2, p.79 for the main features of these institutions.

An appropriate decision has to be made in selecting the participants. Making a decision regarding issues that might face the researcher accordingly could be done through number of key elements as Cohen et al. (2007) suggest in sampling:

- The size of the population sample
- Exemplary of the variables of the sample
- Access to the sample
- The sampling strategy employed

Cohen et al. (2007) explain that there is no clear, direct response to the question of how large a sample should be. They affirm that the sample size should rely on the aim of the

study and the kind of the population under focus. The sample size decision of qualitative research is affected by theoretical and practical regards (Robinson, 2014). As Robinson (2014, p.29) illustrates: *'the duration and required resource-allocation of the project cannot be ascertained, and that makes planning all but impossible'*. Nevertheless, he proposes that researchers consider carefully the effect of approximate sample size, with minimal and maximal numbers of participants. Studies that rely on interviews to collect some or all of the data with the aim of enhancing or extending a general theory, depend to some extent on sample size for any serious claim to generalisability (Robinson, 2012). Charmaz (2014) also recommends researchers to focus on what could shape quality rather than sufficiency in the field and conduct as many interviews as needed to achieve that quality. She supports Mason's (2010) suggestion regarding the strong relation between the sample size, the aim of the study and the quality of data that could be achieved.

For the purpose of my research, I believed that it would be reasonable that if I approached the data collection sample, which is a *'non-random way of ensuring that particular categories of cases within a sampling universe are represented in the final sample of a project'* (Robinson, 2014, p. 32). Robinson (2014) highlights a variety of different types of purposive strategies of sampling in qualitative data collection, and this study's sampling was guided by Robinson's approach. He lists the various types of sampling, such as stratified sampling, quote, cell and theoretical sampling. The strategy that I employed was the stratified type. A stratified sample is defined *'as one resulting from classification of population into mutually exclusive groups'* (Kim et al., 2013, p.186). The reason that I used such a strategy was the existence of several categories in the sample, which played an important role in this selection such as students, teachers and their origins, gender, age and the learners' language proficiency level etc. Robinson (2014) explains that initially the researcher chooses the particular groups or categories that he/she deems to be purposively implied in the definite sample; furthermore, as follows, the sample is split or stratified in regard to these categories, and a number of respondents is appointed to each one.

There are two criteria of stratification, as Robinson (2014) suggests, there is a type that could include two categories or variables; however, if there are more than two variables in a framework as in this study, then it is possible to clarify the stratification by using *'nested tables'* (please see table 4.1 and table 4.2). It is important to highlight that I aimed to include as wide a number of students and teachers in the sample as possible, to ensure that the findings might be considered trustworthy. The actual sample in this investigation is

highlighted as follows:

The sample interviewed consisted of 55 EFL male students aged between 18 and 21 years old in their orientation year at the university/college level with 11 English male teachers as their mainstream teachers. This was to be sure that this sample population would be suitable to fulfil the objective of the study. The majority of these students are situated in their suitable language proficiency level from pre-A1 (beginner) up to B1 (intermediate), in the orientation year of university/college. The number and age of students and their English teachers interviewed in each institution are highlighted below in table 4.1.

Table 4. 1 Institution and number of classes visited students and teachers interviewed in the research

University/ College	Number of classes visited	Students			Teachers		
		No of students interviewed	Age	Gender	No of Ts interviewed & observed	Age	Gender
University 1	4	20	18-21	Male	4	26-50	Male
College 1	4	20	18-21		4	26-50	
College 2	3	15	18-21		3	26-50	

The number of students in each institution was also divided into 5 selected students per class to be interviewed, bringing a total of 20 students in every institution. Just after the L2 classroom observations of each class, I deliberately requested the teachers of each of the 11 classes to make a random selection of 5 students of varying levels of competence for interviews. I did not select these students myself, as I wished to have students of different levels of competence and had no way of knowing their levels. While I asked the teachers to select these students randomly, I had to take it on trust that the selection had indeed been random and that the teachers had not employed any criteria other than level of competence in their selection. Robinson (2014) advises the contextualisation the sample, in this case University EFL students in the Saudi context, in order to avoid any generalisation of the participants' perception. The purpose of making random selection a part of the sample strategy selection was to seek the actual perceptions, attitudes and responses of the students of different competence levels. The sample of the students selected randomly for interview was small; hence, this random selections strategy was integrated within the overall targeted purposive sampling strategy.

However, in College 2 only 15 learners from 3 classes were interviewed, divided into 5 students from each class due to different labelling and division into proficiency levels of levels (e.g. lower and middle level) in language classes. Please see table 4.2 below.

The 11 English language teachers had different origins of NSs, NNS Arab including local (Saudi) English teachers and NNS non-Arab, divided into 4 teachers from University 1 and College 1. However, College 2 included only 3 teachers, as their learners discussed above. All teachers have different teaching experience and qualifications. The teachers' details are explained in table 4.2.

The classroom observations took place in 11 classes, one per teacher, in all 3 institutions. As noted above, the level of the learners, varied in English language proficiency level (e.g. Pre-A1 'beginner' up to B1 'intermediate'), and were divided into 4 classes each except College 2, which had only 3. Table 4.2 below also shows details of all classes visited and number of students observed.

Table 4. 2 English teachers' details and their institutions

Institution	Classes Observed	Language proficiency level	Number of Students observed	Students' interviewed	Teachers' interviewed	Teachers' Origins	Qualification of teachers	Additional training courses of teachers
University 1	Class 1	Pre- A1 (Beginner level,101)	15	S1, S2, S3, S4, S5	T1	NNS Saudi (local)	Bachelor Linguistics	None
	Class 2	A1 (Elementary level,102)	15	S6, S7, S8, S9, S10	T2	NNS Arab Jordanian	Bachelor TESOL	TESOL
	Class 3	A2 (Pre-intermediate level,103)	6	S11, S12, S13, S14, S15	T3	NS British	Master TESOL	TESOL
	Class 4	B1 (Intermediate level, 104)	25	S16, S17, S18, S19, S20	T4	NNS Indian	Master Applied Linguistics	TESOL, CELTA
College 1	Class 5	Pre- A1 (European frame work)	12	S21, S22, S23, S24, S25	T5	NS British	Bachelor in Sociology	Post G in TESOL, CELTA, TBE
	Class 6	A1 (European frame work)	46	S26, S27, S28, S29, S30	T6	NS American	Master of Business Admin	TEFL
	Class 7	A2 (European frame work)	25	S31, S32, S33, S34, S35	T7	NS American	Bachelor (Accounting)	CELTA
	Class 8	B1 (European frame work)	20	S36, S37, S38, S39, S40	T8	NS British	Bachelor Communication	TESOL, CELTA
College 2	Class 9	Lower level (Level 1)	20	S41, S42, S43, S44, S45	T9	NNS Saudi (Local)	Master TESOL	TESOL Arabia Conference and Course
	Class 10	Middle level (Level 2)	27	S46, S47, S48, S49, S50	T10	NNS Saudi (Local)	Master TESOL	TESOL Course
	Class 11	Higher level (Level 3)	24	S51, S52, S53, S54, S55	T11	NNS Saudi (Local)	Master TESOL	TESOL Course

When conducting the interviews and classroom observations, the sample in this study was classified according to the EFL students' L2 proficiency level. The rationale for this was that I believed that it was necessary to explore the behaviours, attitudes and perceptions of students at the four proficiency levels as well as those of their teachers. This was in order to explore the behaviour of students at each proficiency level in terms of English language learning and teaching and the use of the TL in interaction. This was achieved by looking at 4 classes' proficiency levels starting from pre-A1 up to B1 in the European framework in all three institutions visited. In the following section, the interview approaches and the classroom observation in practice will be discussed.

4.5 Interview and classroom observation approaches

4.5.1 Semi-structured interviews with open-ended questions in practice

I requested the administration of every institution to allocate a suitable room for the students and make time schedules for all interviewees in their institutions for that purpose (please see table 4.3). All students brought along and handed in their signed consent forms that had been sent to them with the other documents prior to conducting of the data collection as a sign of their willingness to contribute. An audio recorder was used to record all students' and teachers' interviews. Gale et al. (2013) note that interviews transcription requires an appropriate audio recording machine. All students interviewed were informed that their names and the procedures of their interviews would be confidential. This was done to relax them and to avoid any nervousness that could arise.

I used open-ended interview questions for the students, in semi-structured interviews in the students' L1 (please see appendix A3), Arabic, and transcribed these into English, as will be discussed later. This decision was taken due to the consideration of the students' level of English and obviated any misunderstanding or nervousness that students might have if English was used. Thus, I believed that the language used in interviewing would have an impact on the efficiency of the interview (Welch et al., 2011). In other words and to support this, using the participants' mother tongue in the interview is essential for a number of reasons, as it (i) allows the respondents to express themselves clearly, (ii) find a proper relationship and (iii) allows the researcher to interpret the statements of the

interviewees with the 'understanding of the culture' (Tsang, 1998). This was particularly important in the context of this study.

Furthermore, Cohen et al. (2007, p. 357) give a number of factors that a researcher must consider when interviewing participants such as the EFL students in this present study; one of these factors is 'the respondents' level of education', and knowledge of the language used in the interview. I strove to ensure that the interviews' atmosphere was comfortable, which allowed the students to discuss the phenomena arisen openly and freely as Cohen et al. (2007) suggest. This leads the respondents to speak more than the interviewer, which benefits the latter to obtain more information. The interviews with all students lasted between 8 minutes and 16 minutes. A possible reason for the short length of some interviews was that those EFL students did not have the skills to express themselves fully, although they nonetheless appeared to reveal numerous phenomena in L2 learning and teaching in the classroom and this was apparent in that the more competent learners' interviews lasted longer.

By using eye contact with the respondents and nodding to indicate approval (Cohen et al., 2007), I motivated the participants to discuss freely. Additionally, the students were politely requested to ask for more clarification if needed. The respondents were very collaborative with the interviewer and shared their interests and concerns of L2 learning and teaching in their context. It was highlighted to the interviewees that their perceptions in the study could contribute in regard to English learning and teaching in KSA. Furthermore, interviews were repeated and every audio recording was played to every student so he could have the opportunity to check and hear his responses and add anything else he wished to.

In regard to the 11 English teachers, all interview processes conducted were similar to the students' interviews except for a small number of procedures. Every English teacher was interviewed individually, immediately subsequent to his classroom observation. The teachers were invited to sign their interview consent form that they had received previously. The English teachers' interviews were carried out in English as six among those individuals who were NNS held high qualifications in English language (linguistics and TESOL, please see table 4.2) whereas the other five teachers were English NS. The average time each interview lasted was between 17 minutes and 35 minutes.

I was aware that any type of interview is not a common communication or conversation

with a certain individual (Cohen et al., 2007) as it cannot be compared to daily conversation due to the fact that it has a certain aim. The interviewer asks a number of questions with the aim of obtaining explicit responses, which are as detailed as possible. Thus, Cohen et al (2007, p. 349) explain that interviews are structured and not naturally taking place in a naturalistic settings and that the researcher probably has to be committed to '*the different 'rules of the game' in an interview*'. In addition, it is a fact that the teachers were aware that I was an English teacher and was therefore knowledgeable about English teaching and learning. In this light, I made a great effort to put the teachers at ease and not to be judgmental, as Cohen et al. (2007) suggest. I endeavoured to make the interviews as collaborative as possible, due to my background knowledge and shared experience. The English teachers presented their views and practices in the L2 classroom; however, the classroom observations provided a clearer picture of what actually took place in their classes. This resulted in the 'triangulation' discussed above. In the following section, the classroom observation in this study will be discussed.

4.5.2 The classroom observations

I made several arrangements regarding the classroom observation schedule (please see table 4.3 below). The learners in all classes were aware of the visits; however, they were not aware of the exact time and date. Before the observations, I visited every institution, introduced myself to the students, and explained the objectives of my presence in their class and the purpose of their participation in the study. I requested the learners' acknowledgment regarding the receipt of the documents of the data collection, such as the plain language statement and consent forms. I then invited them to kindly submit the signed consent form of the classroom observation.

Table 4. 3 Interviews and classroom observations that took place at institutions and their dates

Samples and their institutions	Data collection methods	Dates
Teachers and Students University 1	L2 classroom Observations (4 observations) + Interviews (20 students + 4 teachers)	February 2015 05 Feb / 29 Feb
Teachers and Students College 1	L2 classroom Observations (4 observations) + Interviews (20 students + 4 teachers)	March 2015 01 Mar / 25 Mar
Teachers and Students College 2	L2 classroom Observations (3 observations) + Interviews (15 students + 3 teachers)	April 2015 30 Mar 19 April

Moreover, I illustrated the procedures that would be followed in class to conduct the observation. I explained that the observation would not focus on individuals but mainly on the process of L2 learning and teaching taking place in class. The reason for explanation was that I aimed to ease any possible nervousness regarding my presence in class. I deliberately generated some Arabic jokes at the beginning of every class before its start. I used a focused observation sheet designed to include a number of focused L2 learning and teaching phenomena in order to take notes and noting all detailed incidents to systematically enable me to elicit as much data as possible from these observations (Cohen et al., 2007).

A video recorder was also used and placed at the rear corner of class just next to the observer to record the incidents of the L2 teaching and learning and non-verbal behaviours in the classroom which could be compared with the notes afterwards. Silverman (2014) suggests that it is not sufficient to use only your ears and eyes in observing incidents and actions taking place in the sites investigated, but that it is also necessary to supplement the notes with either audio or video recording. I took a non-obtrusive part in all observations (Cohen et al., 2007). Some of these classes were used to visits from the assessment unit in their institution for teaching assessment purposes, which might have minimised the students' nervousness about being observed by an unknown individual.

Every class visit lasted between one hour and an hour and a half. The atmosphere of the classes observed varied among all classes. Students in some classes could be lively, whereas in other classes, students tended to be passive, silent and unwilling to participate in class, which could possibly have been due to the low proficiency level of those classes.

This could also have been due to the presence of the observer and, as a result the behaviours of the observed might have altered accordingly. My presence in most of the classes could have also caused different actions from some of the teachers who explained that they use the TL extensively when they might not on a regular basis. This was clear from the students' responses and attitude towards the teaching approaches and methods used, as they appeared to be passive, quiet and unwilling to participate.

The relationship between the observer and his participants in the observed language classroom should be a positive one, and this might depend on the trust that the observer and his/her observe(s) may build between each other (Cranston, 2009). This favourable rapport might not merely be beneficial for the teacher or students, but might also go beyond this, in that the observer might have opportunities to grasp behaviours and aspects of language learning and teaching taking place in the L2 classroom. Murdock (2000) explains that these good relations can allow a collaborative reflection on the gathered data, which may assure positive results, and lead to a beneficial conversation on teaching strategies and identifying future areas for the attention of both observer and observee.

I attempted to create trust with the teachers through informal meetings beforehand and discussing cultural and language learning obstacles and challenges that Saudi EFL students may encounter in the L2 class, just prior to the observations. This was a deliberate approach with the aim of gaining the teachers' confidence (Shah and Al Harthi, 2014). I also introduced myself to the students the moment I entered their L2 classes just after the introduction of each class's teacher, and just before the start of their lesson; I made some jokes to put the students at ease and comfort. All of these procedures were adopted to avoid any hurdles or issues that could have affected the purpose and the outcomes of the observations discussed in this section and section 4.3. Thus, I attempted to mitigate any modifications to habitual behaviour on the part of teachers and/or learners due to the presence of an observer. This reflects the observer's paradox in the study. Ethical issues should be also taken in consideration; these will be discussed below in the following section.

4.6 Ethical consideration issues in the study

The processes that I followed to gain entry to the educational institutions in this investigation allowed me to obtain authorisation to enter the L2 classrooms and interview

participants. Creswell (2009) suggests that it is essential to secure access to investigations or formal settings; in this case, classrooms, by requiring consent from ‘gatekeepers’ from the educational establishments. He also explains that it is preferable to design a short proposal for that respect for review from those managements. The objectives, significance and purpose of the study were necessarily highlighted in a letter to the authorities of the university and the deans of the two colleges requesting permission to conduct the study in their institutions (Cohen et al, 2007; Creswell, 2009). The rationale behind this was to provide me with access to the field of interest (i.e., classrooms, students and teachers).

Researchers who are involved in naturalistic research, as Lofland and Lofland (1985) in Hoepfl (1997) suggest, request the participants to confer entry to their lives, experiences, perceptions and feelings; therefore, it is fundamental to offer these respondents frank explanations of the aims of the study. The purpose of selecting such participants was highlighted to all parties involved in this research, that is, management, including seniors and head of departments, students and teachers. A plain language statement, explaining the aims of the study was provided, (please see appendices A2 and B2). The plain language statement outlined how the participants’ interviews would be arranged with the coordination of the appropriate parties (e.g. head of department and language centres) in those institutions.

The obligations that I made in those proposals highlighted how the participants’ identity would be kept confidential either in the interviews by using an audio recorder or when video recording were running in the classroom and no individual would have the opportunity to access them. This describes how I conformed to the ethical requirements of my university (University of Glasgow) as well as the British Educational Research Association (BERA) ethical guidelines for research with human subjects. Accordingly, approval from all institutions in this research was obtained to conduct the empirical study.

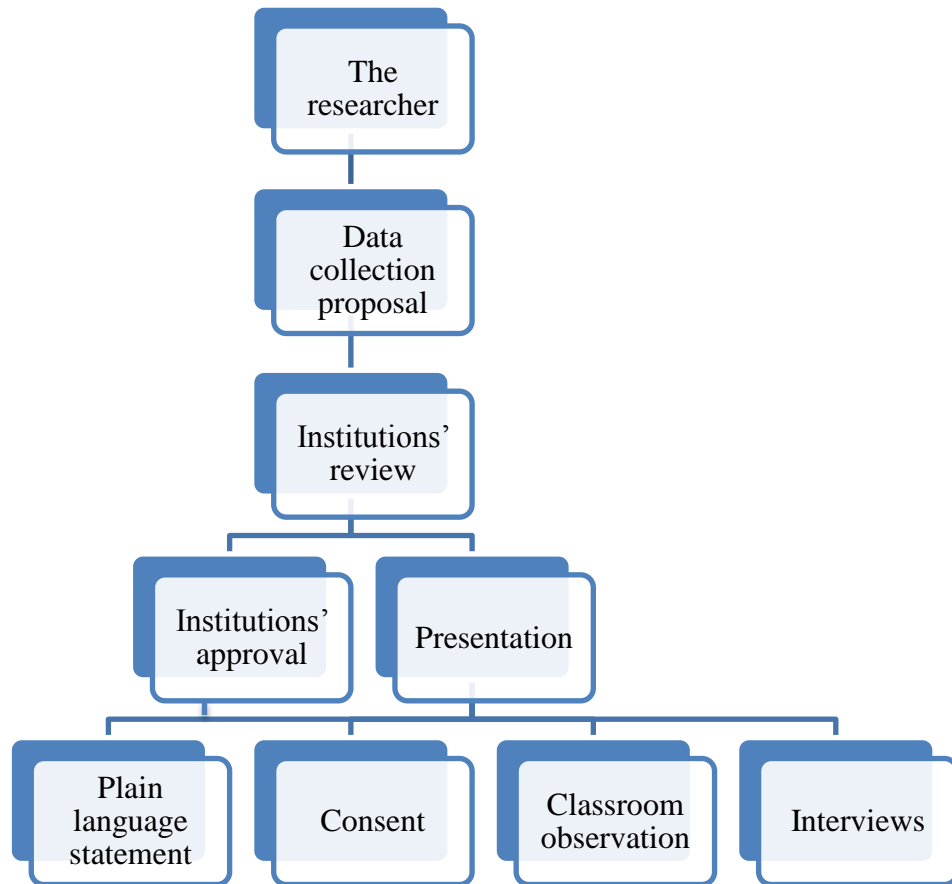
Furthermore, it should be borne in mind that all the steps discussed above were followed according to the BERA guidelines. These guidelines assure that the researcher assumes responsibility towards the participants in the research, which includes obtaining voluntary informed consent, informing the participants of the right to withdraw, openness, disclosure and a constant concern for participants’ confidentiality (BERA, 2011). Similarly, these commitments in research also revolve around responsibility towards the sponsor of the research, in the present case, the University of Glasgow, as it is the body which gives

permission to carry out the investigation (BERA, 2011). This responsibility consists, according to BERA guidelines, of providing the sponsor with full information on the research such as purpose of research, methods used, participants and so forth. The BERA ethical guidelines also emphasise the commitment towards the educational researchers' community, which covers all those engaged in educational research, such as academics, teachers, students and professionals.

Subsequent to securing entry to the sites of this investigation, by the aforementioned educational establishments' management, I was invited to give a presentation to the 11 English teachers who would be involved in this research project in every institution visited. These presentations with all teachers took place to further highlight the purpose, procedures, the arrangements of interviews and classroom visits following the introduction of the proposals discussed above, sent to them via their managements.

The gathering of the data and what would actually go on in the class observations were also discussed in those presentations. I reassured the teachers that I would not share any information about their classroom practice with the management of their institutions and that I would ensure anonymity as far as possible. Thus, all arrangements were accordingly managed with those 11 English teachers. It should be borne in mind that the intention was that these interviews should be the principal method of data gathering. However, they were supported by the classroom observation to reveal the behaviours and attitudes that interviews might not uncover in regard to L2 learning and teaching, and to triangulate the data of the study as well possibly to secure its validity. The process of the data collection approval is described in Figure 4.4 below.

Figure 4. 4 Data collection approval process.



- It was essential to have an informed approval from each volunteer contributing to this research project, particularly the English teachers who were able to ease any issues that might be encountered in the research process. I gave a presentation to explain the research process and its purpose, and provided them with the paper work regarding the consent for data collection, which had been e-mailed to them prior to that meeting. Then I met the EFL students and also explained to them the procedures of the data collection prior to the start of their class and interviews. Their informed consent was given. This ensured that the participants were not constrained, and they were voluntarily contributing to this study.
- All the research participants (i.e. students and teachers) were assured that their identities (e.g. names, class and age) would not be revealed and they would be anonymous in the research.

- The information provided by the participants was confirmed to be used for academic purposes only; it would be subject to my exclusive access and would be destroyed after a certain period after the research completion.

This chapter discussed the sections above regarding the research design, methodology and the data collection in this study. The following sections of this chapter will look at and discuss the data analysis and processes.

4.7 The data analysis method and its process

The objective of this section is divided into two phases, where the first phase aims to provide a description of the methods used to analyse the data from the one-to one interviews carried out with 55 EFL students in their orientation year in three educational institutions at the university level. The second part of the analysis in this first phase also focuses on the analysis of the interviews with 11 English teachers from the same three institutions as the students.

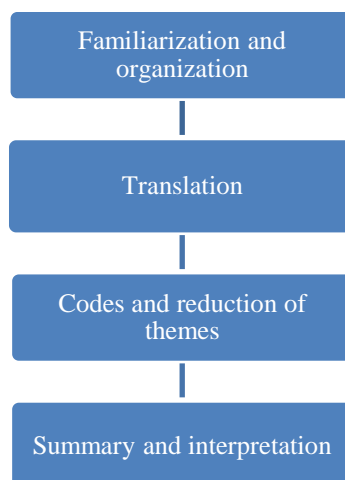
The first phase addresses the students' and teachers' perceptions in the interviews with regard to English language learning and teaching approaches and the development of spoken English and its importance in the Saudi language classroom. This was associated with other language learning and teaching aspects; for example, L2 teaching approaches, CIAs and challenges that may be presented in class that could either facilitate or hinder communication and interaction in L2 learning and teaching.

The second phase of this section, which describes the analysis, examines eleven classroom observations, which took place in the classrooms of the eleven interviewed teachers and their students in these three institutions. These observations investigated the L2 learning and teaching; those observations, as discussed previously, were conducted prior to every teacher's and learner's interview to observe what might be considered the daily practice of L2 learning and teaching in class.

The analysis of the generated qualitative data is presented in this section. This is done in order to give a better comprehension of the participants' perceptions and the settings, situations and incidents of the classroom observations in terms of L2 learning and teaching, and to generate the themes of the findings.

The process of the qualitative data analysis is highlighted in Figure 4.5 below (Ary et al., 2006), which was modified by me by adding a translation procedure, as it was used to translate the EFL learners' interviews for the reasons specified in section 4.5.1.

Figure 4.5 General qualitative data analysis process



The process of the qualitative analysis in Figure 4.5 in regard to the teachers' interviews and classroom observations' transcription did not comprise a translation stage. The English teachers were proficient either due to their specialty or because they were native speakers of the English language. Furthermore, classroom observation notes registered by me were coded and reduced from the observations' templates directly. However, the qualitative analysis process that Ary et al. (2006) indicate involves three analysis stages or approaches. Ary et al. list these stages as familiarisation and organisation, codes and reduction, and summarising and interpreting (see table 4.4 below for more details about these procedures).

Initially, I was drawn to using the grounded theory (GT), as the theoretical framework for the methodology. GT, as Creswell, (2002, p. 439) reports that Glaser and Strauss proposed in their book, is a *'systematic, qualitative process used to generate theory that explains, at a board conceptual level, a process, an action, or interaction about a substantive topic'*. As a result, as the research progressed, I realised that this framework could not be considered suitable for this study. The reasons for this belief were, first, I did not examine the varieties generating between the participants while carrying out the investigation, when the data needs to be gathered at the initial stage and the end stage of the project, which is an essential process of a GT analysis, as Miles and Huberman (1994) suggest. In other words, GT analysis is convenient for a study that encompasses comparison of two or more

independently collected data sets at various times, usually initially and the end of data collection. Subsequently, the target sample of the participants selected in the data collection of this study was a purposive/stratified sampling (Robinson, 2014), which was determined prior to the data collection, which is however opposite to the GT sampling, as GT sampling is ‘*undetermined before starting a study*’ (Alhojilan, 2012, p. 9).

Eventually, the coding applied in the data analysis of this research encompassed six stages of coding and refining of the themes, i.e. searching, reviewing and naming the themes (Braun and Clarke, 2006; Ary et al., 2006; Alhojilan, 2012), please see table 4.4 below. Hence, for all the justifications and reasons discussed above the process was not commensurate with GT, and therefore, this method was replaced by the Braun and Clarke (2006) thematic analysis (TA) model or framework analysis method, which will be illustrated further in the following section.

Table 4. 4 Phases of thematic analysis, adapted from Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 87).

Phase	Description of the process
1- Familiarizing yourself with your data:	Transcribing data (if necessary), reading and re-reading the data, noting down initial ideas.
2- Generating initial codes	Coding interesting features of the data in a systematic fashion across entire data set, collating data relevant to each code.
3- Searching for themes	Collating codes into potential themes, gathering all data relevant to each potential theme.
4- Reviewing themes:	Checking if the themes work in relation to the coded extracts (Level 1) and the entire data set (Level 2), generating a thematic ‘map’ of the analysis.
5- Defining and naming themes:	Ongoing analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, and the overall story the analysis tells, generating clear definitions and names for each theme
6- Producing the report:	The final opportunity for analysis. Selection of vivid, compelling extract examples, final analysis of selected extracts, relating back of the analysis to the research question and literature, producing a scholarly report of the analysis.

4.7.1 The inductive thematic analysis (framework analysis) process of the data in practice

Thematic analysis ought to be viewed, as Braun and Clarke (2006) claim, as the essential foundation of qualitative analysis, as it is considered to be the initial method that researchers have to learn due to its offering a variety of beneficial skills to any type of qualitative analysis conducted. Due to its ‘theoretical freedom’, the flexibility that TA possesses can be a valuable instrument for analysing classifications to generate themes (Alhojilan, 2012), providing rich information from a bank of data (Braun and Clarke,

2006), as had been achieved in this research. Furthermore, Boyatzis (1998) states that TA explains the data in considerable specificity and addresses various themes and topics through interpretations.

Moreover, TA potentially takes or can be structured according to a realistic, essentialist approach that presents the experiences, concepts and reality of the contributors in the investigation (Braun and Clarke, 2006). The reason is that it can fit with any type of study that has the aim of exploration and interpretation, as discussed above, which offers a systematic element for data analysis (Alhojilan, 2012), as it can provide the researcher the chance to comprehend any type of phenomenon (Marks and Yarely, 2004). TA is a *'method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns within data. It minimally organizes and describes your data set in (rich) detail'* (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p. 79).

What is considered a theme in thematic analysis? It can be argued, as Braun and Clarke, (2006) propose, that a 'theme' cannot easily be quantified, however, with regard to what may be significant in terms of answering the research questions. Examples of themes presented in this current research are shown in figures 4.6 and 4.7. In addition, several researchers such as Braun and Clarke (2006); Frith and Gleeson, (2004); Boyatzis, (1998); and Hayes, (1997) suggest that themes and patterns in thematic analysis can be specified inductively, which can be described as 'bottom up' (please see Figure 4.2, p. 69), or deductively (theoretical) which can be referred to as 'top down'.

In relation to this study, an inductive TA was applied as the themes emerged from the data (Patton, 2015). Therefore, it can be suggested that inductive analysis in this research is a data coding process without connection to a 'pre-existing coding frame' or to any type of prior conception on the part of the researcher; hence, TA in this process is data guided (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p. 83). Therefore, it can be argued that in an inductive TA, it may be preferable for the researcher to be less engaged with 'the literature' which is related to his/her analysis, as it may limit the view of the analytical area (Braun and Clarke, 2006); however, others, such as Tuckett (2005) argue that TA may develop the analysis of research. Charmaz (2014) proposes that there is a need for a starting point for, or background to, a theory that the researcher may begin from. The inductive TA analysis data process will be illustrated further below.

The six stages of the data analysis procedure in this research are illustrated in table 4.4 above. Patton (2015) states that it is important to be aware that the guidelines of qualitative analysis do not follow rules but deal with norms that have to be employed in a flexible way to suit the research questions, making the analysis move from one stage to another (Braun and Clarke, 2006).

1- Familiarizing

It is important for the researcher to actively engage with the data when collecting and analysing them, as the researcher will already be familiar with these collected data (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Nonetheless, the data gathered from respondents must be read constantly to identify themes, patterns and their sense (Braun and Clarke, 2006). I became familiar with the data by listening to the interviews through audio recordings and by reading the notes taken during the classroom observation for coding, and thus prepared for an appropriate interpretation of these data (Braun and Clarke, 2006; Gale et al., 2013).

In order to organise the data, they may be brought to scale, for example, put in tables or put into a word file to prepare them for analysis by looking at and analysing them word by word to uncover significant themes and categories that have been captured (Alhojilan, 2012; Halldorson, 2009). I therefore read these notes and data closely on multiple occasions so that they became very familiar. Once all these procedures had been carried out, I was then ready to formally begin coding after transcription (Braun and Clarke, 2006). The transcription of the interviews will be discussed further below.

Transcription and translation

The use of appropriate audio recording, as used in this study, in verbatim and oral interviews to gather data usually requires transcription to a textual format in order to employ TA (Gale et al., 2013; Braun and Clarke, 2006). The process of transcribing an interview can be time consuming and tedious; however, this can contribute to familiarisation with the data (Gale et al., 2013). However, Braun and Clarke (2006) argue that there is no particular form of transcribing these verbal interviews when conducting TA but it is vital to capture the necessary details from the oral content. If the transcription of the interviews is carried out by an individual on behalf of the researcher, there may be a need for further time for familiarisation with the data (Braun and Clarke, 2006).

I transcribed (please see appendices D1 and D2) the interviews with both students and teachers manually. I wished to avoid the involvement of anyone else in the transcription in order to immerse myself in the data, as well as to ensure that they were transcribed correctly.

Translation from Arabic to English was necessary for the quotes and notes of the EFL students in the interviews, for the reasons explained previously. This translation involved transcribing directly to convey the meaning and not word-word, as diversities in the syntactical structure of the two languages (Arabic to English) may exist when gathering data (Filep, 2009). Filep proposes that readable citations, by making alterations to the structure of the sentences of the responses by including missing pieces of the extracts would make them understandable to people who are not aware of the culture. Therefore, Filep believes that ‘conveying meaning’ is more appropriate, and this is what I applied in this study.

In addition, I employed several means to assure that the translation of the data was readable and comprehensible. I used a bilingual Arabic to English dictionary to interpret words, the meaning of which may have caused confusion; for example, complex words, which may ‘*carr[y] some kinds of a cultural or identity meaning, which mostly refer to the lexical translation*’ (Filep, 2009, p.67). I also used a consultant strategy, which may be supportive in such cases (Filep, 2009) by requesting another researcher who is bilingual and a native Arabic speaker to listen to and discuss the verbal extract and examine the written English version of the data.

The purpose my interpreting the transcription of the students’ data is that I believed that it would be allowing me to immerse myself in the data as Braun and Clark (2006) suggested. Additionally, Arabic is my L1, I am familiar with the context and aware of the areas of L2 learning and teaching that the Saudi EFL students were discussing in the interviews. Therefore, I did not wish to take the risk that another individual may possibly mistranslate these verbal extracts, which would not have assisted in the coding process and the subsequent generation of themes from the data collected. The codes and the analysis process will be discussed further below.

2- Coding (initial) of the analysis

Coding can be described as a process of data analysis in which the data are gathered, divided and integrated to create a theory (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). This coding can be a type of content analysis whose purpose is to discover and delineate essential issues emerging from the large quantity of data (Moghaddam, 2006). For example, if a researcher wishes to analyse an interview, s/he may become fully aware of which of the interviewee's words may highlight the issues investigated and be of interest in the research (Moghaddam, 2006). These words should be noted and represented. The issues noted may be repeated and stated in the same words and this should also be noted. In terms of coding, a number of codes may be generated from a single text; therefore, data should be reviewed several times in order to look for other codes that may emerge (Moghaddam, 2006). Coding in this study was carried out according to the responses of the respondents (students and teachers) in the data collection with the aim to formulating it to be a 'theoretical conception' (Coffey and Atkinson, 1996). Coding may assist the researcher to analyse the entire data set by determining the number of times an important meaning appears or to address it simply in terms of what data are attempting to present or the readers or inform them (Halldorson, 2009; Coffey and Atkinson, 1996; Miles and Huberman, 1994).

In the early stage of coding, this study included the presentation of 'initial codes' from the data, which seemed to be interesting to me and indicated the essential chunk of the 'raw data' or details that could evaluate the phenomenon in a meaningful way (Boyatzis, 1998). It was processed, as shown in table 4.5, through the organisation of the data as a significant set (Tuckett, 2005). Nevertheless, the codes, which were initiated from the data, should not be similar to the component of analysis (i.e. themes), which can be broad (Braun and Clarke, 2006) (please see Figure 4.7). Moving on to identify a number of codes by grouping them together into groups of categories (Gale et al., 2013) would develop them in the next stage; firstly searching for theme, then becoming a theme (Boyatzis, 1998). An example of initial coding is seen below in table 4.5.

Table 4. 5 Interview with students about importance of English in KSA

S3: Currently, English is very essential and <u>people are ought to learn</u> it. It is really very rare to find people learning a L2 not having English courses in their education, even in religious subject.	Obligation to learning
S4: English is very important. However, the population <u>should have good knowledge of English</u> so that they can speak fluently	Literacy
S13: Currently, an individual who <u>has no knowledge of English is considered as an untaught person</u>	Reputation
S17: English can be beneficial in many things in life a part from <u>jobs, as they require good knowledge of English</u> . Another thing is in your daily life practices when you deal with non-local people in the country.	Employment
S40: Because <u>currently everything is in English</u> , <u>mobiles</u> , electronic products have English instructions, and even simple things such as watches and pens.	Life needs
S38: The English language is very important by all means as in developing yourself, one of these is being <u>communicative with others in the country and elsewhere</u>	Intercultural communication

a- Initial Codes of Students' Interviews:

The EFL students' perception (P) about using English in the KSA revealed from the students' interviews were assigned the following categories:

P1: Employment

P2: Literacy

P3: Obligation to learning

P4: Reputation

P5: Life needs

P6: Intercultural communication

Following this process just after coding, 'table units' were allocated to the gathered data from the respondents; these were single utterances or longer comments (Alhojilan, 2012). I then recoded the above six elaborated perceptions of the students into two 'categories' (i.e. employment and reputation). This is where the first reduction stage of the data analysis begins. This described by Miles and Huberman (1994, p.11) as '*a form of analysis that sharpens, sorts, focuses, discards, and organize data in such way that 'final' conclusion*

can be drawn and verified'. Numerous data could be reduced or summarised, which is a crucial part of the process of analysis (Gale et al., 2013). While continuing to reduce through coding until a 'theme is searched for', I took notes and memos throughout the analysis and linked these to the text for concepts, impressions and initial interpretations (Welsh, 2002; Gale et al., 2013); hence, a list of various codes could be identified (Braun and Clarke, 2006), as in the process described above. The two categories P1 and P4 were recoded and assigned to a new category (theme), 'instrumental factor'. This will be further highlighted in stage three of the analysis, as new developing codes were initiated and generated a theme that could be more meaningful, as I sensed a more and meaningful theme might emerge.

The English teachers' initial coding was carried out in the same way to that of the students, with stages of categorising the codes and proceeding to search for themes. An example of the teachers' initial coding is highlighted below in table 4.6.

Table 4. 6 Teachers' perception of the English language learning and teaching at university in the classroom

T3: We use and facilitate very highly <u>efficient English teaching approaches</u> so, my own view is the research tends to show that this leads to language proficiency, we have all the modern technology to facilitate this is well, so I would be very satisfied with those methodologies which combine <u>quite a number of different approaches</u> .	Interactive approaches
T7: It depends on the methodologies. I would like to do it with more <u>freedom</u> , <u>and for it be less test driven and more student centred</u> , whilst definitely meeting the outcomes. What I've found out at this college level, which is a public college, is that <u>you're not able to have all of that in the curriculum</u> . You may find it on a director level where you have two directors - <u>the English directors that provide that freedom</u> - but on a wider, broader, upper level scale they want to see tests	Autonomy over content and approaches
T4: I would not say I'm very happy, but what I do is, um, you know especially with higher classes <u>there's a lot more freedom to use different kinds of methodologies</u> so, with lower classes you have to explain a lot,	
T7: In my class I <u>have a communication class</u> so they're pretty active. I try to coordinate as much as I can with my teacher partner, and have those lesson plans counterpart effectively with each other but not overlap.	Communicative situation and approaches
T8: I do believe it is well, using the <u>communicative approach for teaching</u> . I mean for me myself I also use my own personal manner of learning, I personally, I cannot learn simply by someone talking to me, I need something in front of me.	
T10: This depends on, it <u>depends on the students</u> , so you have to vary. As a teacher you have to use different, different, we use <u>different methods, different...uh techniques, based on the students' level, interest</u> and uh, their background, so you have to... have to use different, different methods in teaching.	Students' needs
T4: They'll speak in class, I told you today, when it's an open discussion and you throw questions at them and you expect them to shout out answers they actually... you find at times... you find them vying with one another, for attention, and they really <u>do raise their hands and you know they really try and answer the questions</u> . So, I could see that there is no diffidence there, <u>there is openness and they really want to speak</u>	Extension of discussion

b- Initial codes of the teachers' interviews:

The teachers' codes appeared to revolve around the four codes underlined below.

P1: Interactive approaches

P2: Autonomy over content and approaches

P3: Communicative situation and approaches

P4: Students' needs

P5: Extension of discussion

These codes were reduced further to obtain three new categories. These categories are the following:

P1: Interactive and communicative approaches

P2: Use of the TL and extended discourse strategies

P3: English teachers' autonomy over content and approach

Moreover, these categories were summarised further to produce a new broader category or theme, taking a similar approach as with the learners' initial coding. These categories, as I identify, are highlighted in stage three.

In addition, concerning coding and analysis of data, a number of researchers such as Gale et al. (2013); Alhojilan (2012); and Welsh (2002) believe that utilising software (e.g. NVivo) to break down the data in the interviews could be valuable for data analysis. In the analysis in this study, I conducted the initial coding and data analysis manually without using such software, although the volume of data and number of interviews were considerable.

On the other hand, the classroom observation analysis did not include transcription in its coding and analysis. The data in the classroom observation originated from notes I had taken on a template observation sheet, and using a video recording (Silverman, 2014), as discussed in section 4.5.2. For an explanation of how I coded the classroom observation data, table 4.7 presents an example of the coding tablet utilised in the process of analysing the data in this investigation.

c- Initial codes of the classroom observation:

The focus of the observation in the left column of table 4.7 below represents a part of the classroom observation investigation in relation to the type of activities of English language teaching and learning used, engagement of students and the evidence for these. The development of the coding of these observations started by summarising, narrowing and initiating the codes of the practices of teaching and learning activities of the eleven EFL classes. These initial codes were reduced, as Ary et al. (2006) propose, in the data analysis process to produce four new categories, specified in the right hand column in table 4.7. These categories were also summarised to generate a new broader theme or category. The

search for the theme will be discussed further to highlight how themes and categories emerged.

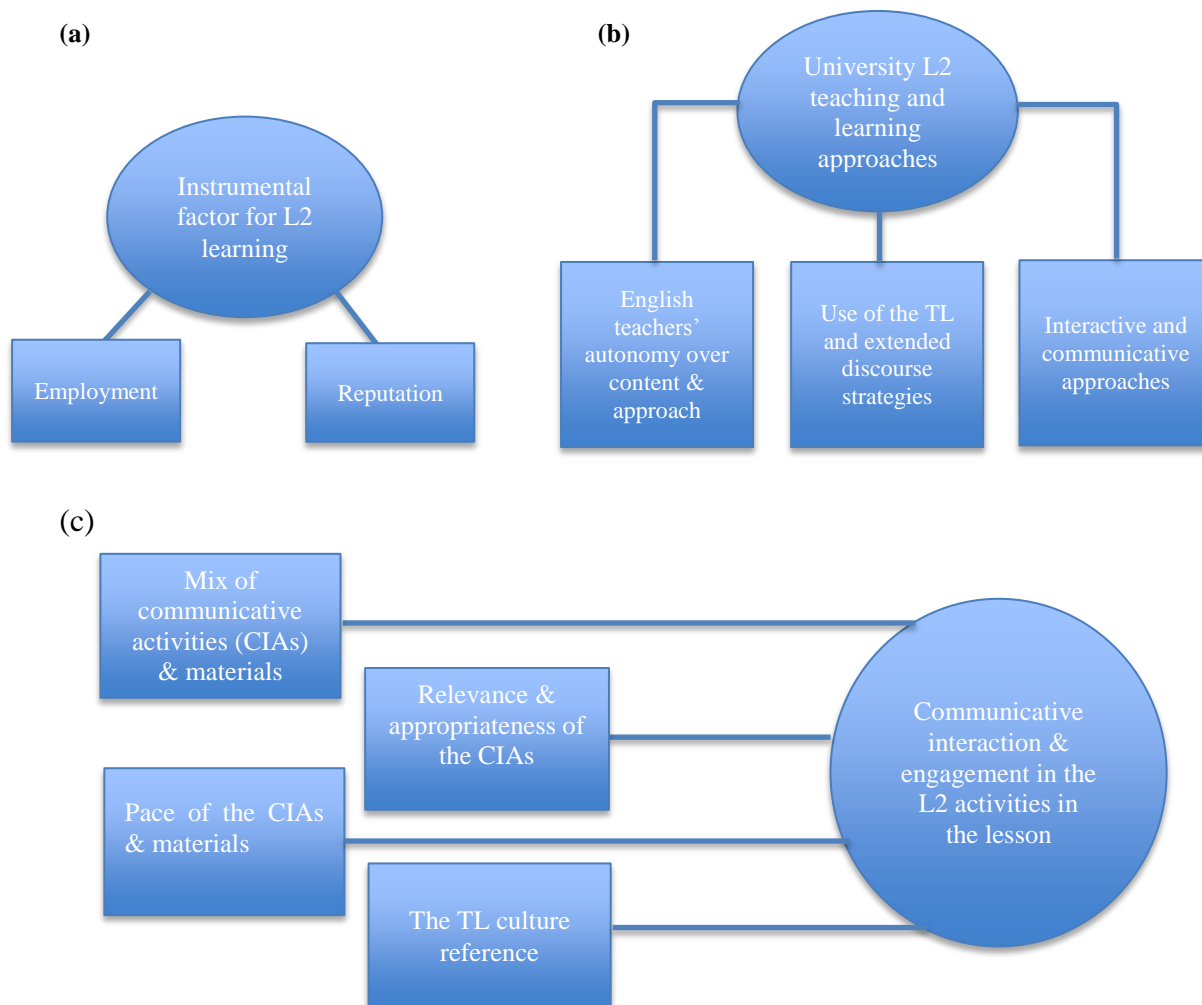
Table 4. 7 Classroom observation coding table

Classroom Observation Sheet		
Focus	Initial Codes	Themes and Categories
a-What is the learners' perceived reaction regarding them? b- Are the learners engaged, interacting and active in class or passive? c- What evidence is there for this? What types of activities are used?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Games • Gap filling • Matching exercises • Group presentation • Skimming and scanning • Influential material sources • Elicitation of knowledge (justifying-agreement-suggestions) • Suitable language level material (video "Fast and furious movie"- eating in a restaurant) (e.g. teaching Saudi speakers how to structure sentences) • Guessing meaning • Communication for meaning • Initial full activity engagement • Debatable and negotiation situation • Focusing on form • Long activity boredom and passiveness; Learner-centred approach • Use of pictures and objects for language teaching. 	Mix of communicative activities (CIAs) & materials Pace of the CIAs and materials Relevance & appropriateness of the CIAs The TL culture reference

3- Searching for themes

This stage of analysis emphasises themes, rather than codes; it marks the end of the division of the various codes into possible themes (Braun and Clarke, 2006), as seen in the process of coding above and continuing to this phase. In this stage, I developed the list of emerged categories from the selected codes of the data and started to search for the themes from these categories. I chose to utilise a 'thematic map' as Braun and Clarke (2006) suggest, presenting the candidate themes and the codes that generated those themes. Figure 4.6 below shows the candidate themes.

Figure 4. 6 Initial candidate themes generated from codes. Example of Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 90) of thematic map



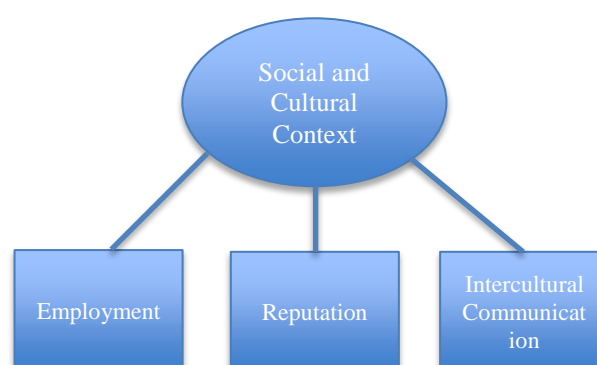
The initial themes that emerged in this stage and are displayed in Figure 4.6 show examples of the themes generated from (a) the students' interviews, (b) the teachers' interviews and (c) the classroom observations. This first level of data development in themes allowed an appropriate refinement of the themes in this stage (Alhojilan 2012). The initial codes of the existing data can formulate the themes and some may shape the sub-themes (Braun and Clarke, 2006) in the process of analysis in this study. After all of the procedures of coding, analysis and generating the initial themes had been done, I had a sense of the meaningful and important segments (themes). Before continuing to the following phase, it was necessary to review the themes and ensure their validity (Braun and Clarke, 2006; Alhojilan, 2012). This will be discussed further below.

4- Reviewing themes

While the process of interpreting the data and breaking them into segments continued, I

kept reviewing the data as some codes could have emerged, involving the generation of new themes or the amendment of existing ones, as Moghaddam (2006) suggests. The reason behind this process, as Braun and Clarke (2006) indicate, are that some nominated themes may not be themes at all if there are no data or codes to support them; themes ought to adhere together coherently, although there should be a clear and evident distinction among them. After this review of data in this stage of analysis, I realised that theme (a) in Figure 4.6 needed to have an additional code in order to have a more meaningful sense of a theme, whereas the others appeared to work well (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Therefore, I coded further within theme (a) and allocated a new code, that is, Intercultural communication with the current theme, which resulted in a replacement theme '*Social and cultural context*' explained in Figure 4.7, (please see table 4.5 and initial codes of the students' interview). This is classified as level two of this stage that Braun and Clarke (2006) refer to. At this point, I was satisfied with the themes that had emerged and continued to the following stage of analysis, which is defining and naming the theme. This will be discussed in the next stage.

Figure 4. 7 A theme replacement after reviewing additional data and codes and refer to final theme



5- Defining themes and naming them

This stage revolves around ensuring that the themes which emerged from the data are evaluated, eventually refined, reviewed and defined; these number several fundamental elements of thematic analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006; Alhojilan, 2012). It should be borne in mind that refinement and definition of themes in this phase indicate the 'substance' of what every theme may highlight and emphasise, and locating what the parts of every theme can capture (Braun and Clarke, 2006). In addition, every theme of the data identified has to be considered, and related to the other themes. Moreover, each separate

theme may include one or more sub-themes, which can be useful to structure major themes and elucidate the data (Braun and Clarke, 2006).

Furthermore, it was proposed that these emerged themes be shared with an independent reviewer to ensure that the themes are consistent with the whole of the text (Alhojilan, 2012). My supervisors took the role of the external reviewers, and participated in this particular process from an early stage of analysis and provided feedback. This can, as Hosmer (2008) proposes, enhance the reliability of the coding and analysis of themes. Hence, at the final point of this stage, I clearly ‘defined’ the themes by examining each theme to verify that it demonstrated the range of the theme (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Although I had previously given the themes headings, I thought about these themes’ names and felt that they ought to be very brief, rapidly giving the reader an impression of the theme (Braun and Clarke, 2006). The following phase will explain how these themes were reported and displayed.

6- Producing, reporting and displaying the data

When I reached this stage of analysis, just after obtaining a potential collection of themes, I began to display and report the data. Data display is basically described as the orderly, systematic, condensed presentation of gathered information (Miles and Huberman, 1994). I determined that the purpose of producing the themes of the data in this research and thematic analysis was to convince the reader of the validity and quality of the data presented in this study (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Similarly, I also saw the purpose as an attempt to develop the data further and to clarify them for this investigation, as well as generating data sensibility through producing related concepts from various statements (Halldorson, 2009).

It should be noted that I frequently supported the data and these themes with adequate evidence, as Braun and Clarke (2006) suggest, such as quotations from participants to illustrate the expansion of each theme. These quotations embody the essence of the phenomenon I am emphasising. The quotations are simply recognisable as an instance of the phenomenon; however, they are also used to build up an argument through relating them to the research questions, and not only to offer a description of the data (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Finally, Yin (2010) proposes that tables, maps, charts, figures and quotations be employed when reporting and presenting the data. This assists in acquiring a deeper understanding of the data, and also gives the researcher the possibility of

introducing clearer data (Gibbs, 2002). The themes and the sub-themes will be fully illustrated in the following three chapters. Prior to this, the limitations of this research will be highlighted below.

4.8 Limitations of the research and methods

This study has certain limitations, involving two elements, one of which is the data collection procedures and the other, the methodology used in this research. In terms of the data collection limitations, it should be noted that at the beginning of the research, I had to arrange a meeting with administrators to make all arrangements regarding data collection in classes with the selection of the teachers. The meeting was delayed due to the death of the Custodian of the Two Holy Mosques, King Abdullah Bin AbdulAziz, and a day off for mourning being declared for all educational establishments and other sectors; this delayed the commencement of the data collection. There were other delays, such as students' attendance in the first week of the study for registration purposes and late replies of teachers and their students to give their consent to participating in the research project and taking some time to explain the project. This was done by mailing the data collection documents (plain language statement, interview questions and classroom observation sheet) to them in order to obtain their approval.

Secondly, another limitation in this section is sampling. Only male EFL learners were interviewed and observed in the classroom. This was unavoidable, as all education in Saudi Arabia is strictly segregated by gender. Hence, as I am a male, I could not enter any university/college for female students due to the traditions of the religion and the culture of the country. This could therefore result in a limitation in terms of the generalisability of the results of the research. Further, one teacher politely refused to allow me to conduct the investigation with himself and his students because of the class schedule. The teacher explained that he had to finish the syllabus in the allotted time, according to the regulations of his college. In addition, the sample size (i.e. 55 students, 11 teachers and 11 classrooms) generated a challenge for me in terms of time spent interviewing, observing classes and transcription of interviews. However, this is what I had chosen to do, and I realised that if the sample size had been reduced, this limitation may have been avoided, but decided that this was the most appropriate choice for the research.

A further limitation of this study is related to the methodology of this research. The qualitative method used in this study gives rich data to saturation but cannot cover as a wide spread of respondents as a quantitative method such as a survey a questionnaire could have done. That is, quantitative survey could have allowed me to gain access to a much wider group of participants in other parts of KSA. This research was limited by the number of participating institutions, although there was a relatively high number of participants, as highlighted above. This means that it is not possible to say with certainty that these findings are representative because they may not be. They do give a case study in-depth data, which may or may not be relevant to other institutions or areas. Therefore, the findings of this research are generalisable. However, it is suggested that as the Saudi education system is highly centralised, the research findings are likely to be transferable to other institutions in other parts of the country and even to other GCC countries, as they have similar education systems, as mentioned previously.

4.9 Conclusion

The aim of this chapter was to address the critical elements that influence any type of research design and which had to be illustrated clearly. These elements revolved around the philosophical stance of research, research methods and theoretical framework, as well as the data collection processes and the institutions visited to collect the data.

The chapter started by addressing the pragmatic stance adopted in the research, in which interpretivism and inductivism were used in order to build the case, in keeping with qualitative research methodology. I examined the qualitative research methods with a view to rationalising the reasons for adopting this approach as the most suitable for this research. Furthermore, the use of the enquiry methods, particularly the primary instrument for the collection of the data, the interviews with both sets of respondents (students and teachers) was discussed, as was the secondary method used to collect the data, that is, the classroom observations that supported the interviews in studying various phenomena in the L2 classroom. The chapter moved on to discuss credibility, dependability, transferability and the validity of this research and the use of triangulation, that is, use of two methods to collect the data and interviews with two sets of respondents with different perspectives, to achieve that goal.

The flexibility of the systematic process in the thematic analysis utilised in this study was intended to facilitate the understanding of the data analysis process. It was explained in this chapter how the thematic analysis progressed through several phases, which involved initial familiarisation with the data and proceeded through the process of the analysis until the generation of the themes and the reporting of the data.

In the following chapter, the EFL students' perception and beliefs regarding the English language learning and teaching in the L2 classroom at the university level will be discussed fully to highlight how specific communicative approaches may play a role in using the TL in class.

Chapter Five: Beliefs of second language learning and teaching, students' perspective

5.1 Introduction

The objective of this research is to investigate the movement of English L2 learning and teaching approaches which may support the Saudi university level EFL students to use the TL through employing CIAs in the language classroom. It presents the analyses of the findings by applying two methodological tools, one of which is interviews (students -‘S’ and teachers - ‘T’). These interviews explored in depth the perception of the Saudi EFL students and their English language teachers of various origins (e.g. NS, NNS Arab and NNS non-Arab), in the Saudi context. I will also present the comments of the interviews of both students and teachers. The rationale for this is to show the main points generated from the data. The other methodological tool used was classroom observations for eleven English proficiency level classes. It revolves around the language classroom aspects (e.g. teaching and learning methods and approaches, communicative interaction, teaching and learning strategies, using the target language etc.) that may emerge in the process of language learning and teaching.

This chapter focuses on the emergent themes from the student interview data (with some teachers’ voices as appropriate to the discussion). Information from analysis of classroom observations will also be included as appropriate. Five emergent themes will be discussed (see Table 5.1):

Table 5. 1 Themes of the EFL students’ beliefs of L2 learning and teaching and the use of TL in class

Themes of L2 students’ beliefs	Implications
Social and cultural contexts	a- Employment, b- Reputation, c- Intercultural communication.
Prior experiences of L2 teaching and learning and transition to HE	
Language preferences in the classroom	
Perceptions of effective English language teaching and learning	1- Preference regarding English teachers and L2 teaching styles, 2- Perceptions of L2 teaching approaches, 3- Active learning and communicative approaches.
Specific challenges in TL communication	a- Grammatical errors, b- Phonological errors, c- Lexical choice errors, d- Language anxiety, e- Confidence in using the TL

First, the importance of social and cultural contexts will be discussed. Prior experiences and the transition to higher education will then be discussed together in order to explain the resulting shock that some students experienced when they progressed to the university/college level English learning. Then the chapter will address contexts for L2 learning, and will then examine the EFL students' perceptions of effective learning in terms of modes of learning, L2 teaching methods and approaches and the discourse of open discussion that is implied by communicative interaction situations. The chapter will further address how classroom interactions could give rise to a number of challenges that could either support or hinder the students' use of the TL in the English language classroom setting.

5.2 Social and cultural contexts

Employment

With regard to the perception of the value of English (Q.1), sixteen of the students viewed it as a significant instrument, which could not be dispensed with and was particularly important to employment. Students stated:

S8: *Its importance is based on the fact that 90% of jobs need the English language.*

S11: *English is an essential language in Saudi Arabia as in the Saudi market in the last decade there has been an increase in the selection of students who have a good knowledge of English.*

S20: *A good knowledge of English can be helpful to gain a good position with a good salary.*

S27: *English language is needed in employment; in hospitals, and big companies.*

S39: *Employment conditions demand English language competency.*

The learners indicated that they could be prioritised in a job application if they demonstrated a high level of spoken English in employment interviews; this is deemed particularly true in the case of leading companies with a good reputation (e.g. Aramco, Sabic etc.) in the KSA. The idea that knowledge of the English language rather than any other language could be the primary condition for finding such employment served as a strong motivating factor for the students to improve their English language skills, particularly speaking and writing. The growth of the economy and technology, as well as the discovery of oil fields in the Gulf region, particularly in the KSA, led many multinational companies to establish branches in this region, which in turn led to an interest in English language learning and teaching, and increasing importance in the use of

English (Javid et al., 2012). This attracted young adult EFL students at the university/college level and motivated them to improve their skills in written and spoken English, as these can help them achieve their career goals (Shaaban and Ghaith; 2003; Rabab'ah, 2005; Richards, 2006; Elys, 2008).

There was some diversity of responses to Q1 related to each individual's belief and field of interest. The learners who come from College 1 and College 2 were intending to do vocational training, although they were studying EFL in their orientation year at the college before enrolling in courses in their vocational and technical fields. They (mostly) regarded the English language as merely a requirement to find employment in the market, whereas the other half of the students, who come from University 1, saw it as a fundamental factor in finding what they described as a decent position with prospects. The students' views of the importance of English in obtaining jobs were based on their perception of employment seeking within their social network beliefs (Gush et al., 2015). English competence for these students appeared to generate social capital with respect to employment. Social capital is identified as '*the ability of actors to secure benefits by virtue of membership in social networks or other social structures*' (Portes, 1998, p.6). There appeared to be a difference in aspiration regarding the level of employment that knowledge of English could confer.

Reputation

The findings also present an interesting point that is strongly connected to the necessity of learning English and using it such as literacy and illiteracy and includes reputation issues. In Saudi, there is a belief that a person who has no knowledge of the English language is illiterate or uneducated. S4 explained that '*[p]eople should have knowledge and so they should know how to use and speak English; if not they will be ignorant*'. S13 said that '*an individual who has no knowledge of English is considered an uneducated person*'. Saudi culture respects well-educated individuals, particularly those who hold a higher degree in a certain discipline from an institution in an English-speaking country. Elyas (2008) states that English is valued in the Saudi context, and it is considered as '*essential in the domains of science, technology and medicine. In addition, its importance is reflected in the large numbers of Saudis who study abroad in English-speaking countries*' (p. 39).

Saudi culture greatly values the good reputation of knowledgeable people. This belief is apparent in responses to Q11 in the students' interview. Three students replied '*we feel prestigious and intellectual*'. This feeling and attitude, which occurred through learning the English language and using it in the academic setting and daily-life basis, which generate prestige in the society (Malalah, 2000), could be viewed as an indication of the professional advancement and a tool of progression of the KSA (Al-Zahrani, 2008; Elyas, 2008).

The sense of positive reputation that these students highlighted is seen as highly desirable and could serve an engine to encourage Saudi EFL learners to learn English and speak it extensively. As S13 stated, there may be less respect given by the community to that individual and s/he may be held back, no matter what his/her community status is, if s/he does not have the knowledge of English and competence in speaking English among others in the academic or work community.

Intercultural communication

L2 (English) communication was and still is a great challenge for Saudi EFL students in KSA due to the infrequency of opportunities for using and speaking English either within KSA with non-Arab inhabitants or when travelling overseas. The domination of the use of the mother tongue (Arabic) could be considered to deter full understanding and communication. However, the participants in this study revealed that the ability to speak and use the TL in order to be sufficiently familiar with the language as to be able to comprehend and participate in any discussion that may take place between nationals and people visiting from abroad was important to them. The students stated that they needed to speak often and to use English so they could easily understand others:

S5: English is considered as the number one language globally and people from different cultures and contexts can understand each other through it.

S9: If you are not aware of the English language, you will not be able to survive.

S12: The importance of the English language results from the need to talk with non-Arab workers and understand them.

People who may come to work in the KSA, as the students suggested, can be English NSs, and NNS such as people from the Philippines and the Indian sub-continent; thus, English is needed to communicate with such people. S9 however, raised an interesting point that language survival is associated with L2 (English) awareness when communicating.

Shaaban and Ghaith (2003) explain that the respondents in their investigation of university/college level students also expressed their opinion of learning a L2, particularly English, and of using it, stating that it was important for intercultural communications, as well as for a number of other purposes.

The students' feedback noted above, implies that they did not realise that they were referring to the potential use of English as a lingua franca (see Jenkins, 2006) for communication either in KSA or when travelling abroad, when the use of English may enable people of various nationalities to communicate with each other and discover what they may have in common (McKay and Bokhorst-Heng, 2008).

5.3 Prior experiences of L2 teaching and learning and transition to HE

Most participants had begun learning English in the fourth, fifth or sixth year of primary school; however, L2 learning at the school level did not seem to be prioritised. Five students claimed that school L2 classes had not contributed to their knowledge of the English language. Their perception was that L2 learning in schools was considered as a second-class subject. Additionally, one student believed that poor quality teaching was also a factor, and that English teaching methods did not assist them to learn the English language or speak it properly. Researchers in the field of ELT in the KSA such as Khan (2011) and AlHazmi (2003) have recommended that the preparation programme for Saudi EFL teachers be reviewed as a matter of urgency. This recommendation was made because the programme did not appear to be producing high quality EFL teachers (Javid et al., 2012), due to its deficiency '*with regard to disciplinary knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, and technological pedagogical knowledge*' (Al-Seghayer, 2011, p. 22). The EFL students in this study indicated that their English language classes in school emphasised grammatical concepts and simple sentences (e.g. 'What time do you go to bed?') at a very basic level of English that did not reach an advanced level even after several years of L2 learning:

S3: I have been learning English since Primary Six. I should be at a higher level.

S20: I feel I have reached this age (19 years old) and I am not competent in the English language. I feel that I should be at a higher level.

S47: My level was and still is very poor. However, since I entered the university I have been improving

It is interesting to note that the EFL student equate length of time of their L2 learning with the level they think they should be at; however, they do not seem to equate progress with effort. The Saudi EFL students seem to be aware of their weaknesses and, indeed, the majority of high school graduates taking English classes at university level state that they are aware of their low level of English proficiency (Al-Seghayer, 2011; Elyas and Grigri, 2014). S21 stated that school *'provided us with only basic knowledge such as alphabet, numbers and very simple writing. We learned these things before joining the college, but they were not enough'*. S30 commented that *'because of the English teachers' negligence we thought of the English class in the same way as we thought of Physical Education lessons'*.

S30's claim that the English teachers were negligent could be viewed as an indication of his deep frustration in the English teaching at school level, where he had clearly not succeeded. However, it might also be a face-saving move to mask his lack of engagement. It was clear that he felt that their school English teachers did not place sufficient importance on English and their teaching of it was inadequate, saying the classes were boring, pupils were passive, and teachers provided them with little to do except homework. Al-Seghayer (2011) states that most English teachers who graduate from English departments at Saudi universities and become involved in teaching are not competent in English, nor are interested in pedagogical matters. Moreover, Elyas and Grigri (2014) argue that English teaching at the school stage, that is, before the university/college level, involves the practice the traditional method of teaching, with little or no use of English teaching techniques, aids and modern technology. The majority of EFL students argued that English language learning and teaching activities and resources in the language classroom at school level were not engaging or attractive, resulting in a loss of motivation, were unproductive and a waste of time and energy for them and their teachers. This is similar to the results that Elyas and Grigri, (2014) found in their study of obstacles to teaching English in KSA public schools.

The students explained that teaching in L1 (Arabic) and the use of GTM impacted L2 learning and teaching in the school context. The majority of English teachers at school level were locals who teach using L1 and according to the students did not use the TL in the language classroom. It appeared from the students' responses that GTM was not appreciated. S11 stated that:

‘The English teaching was the same as the teaching of another scientific discipline just explaining rules...The teacher did not make an effort to use the English language, and used our L1 instead. This was the way he was teaching us due to the learners’ low level of English. I am sure he would have been a good teacher if he used only English when speaking’. (Please see Macaro, 2001).

Mahmoud (2012) asserts that EFL teachers who use the TL in the FL classroom, may need to make an effort to do so, as they will have to be innovative in selecting the techniques and materials used in class.

Students also expressed the opinion that English language classes at schools had not allocated sufficient time to learn. Language learning consisted of one class per day, four days a week, with each class lasting for forty-five minutes, making a total of three hours per week (Mahboob and Elyas, 2014). In the light of all the issues discussed above regarding the school stage, S27 further expressed his disappointment, stating *‘we are suffering because of that’*. This is what Al-Seghayer (2011) and Elyas and Grigri (2014) suggested regarding students’ awareness of their English learning level, as S20 and 47 highlighted above.

The students’ criticisms regarding English teaching at the school level were as limiting their English language knowledge and restricting them from using and speaking the TL, although the English language course materials used included rich communicative interaction situations (please see appendix G2). They indicated that L2 learning at school generated a gap between school and university or college. Students did not consider the school level as an English learning period:

S16: My real English learning has been here at the university

S35: I started learning English when I started college this year.

S52: It was just during this year because I did not learn a lot at school; in fact I did not learn anything

The Saudi EFL students arriving at the university/college level usually have deficiencies in their English knowledge (Rabab’ah, 2005). Al-Nujaidi’s (2003) study also found that Saudi graduate students from high school reach the university level with an extremely poor English vocabulary consisting of 500-700 words in English despite their long period of L2 learning. However, the EFL students believed that the actual initial stage of L2 learning was when they found interactive, and active learning, at university or college. They pointed out that the university level re-established their English knowledge from scratch. Malallah (2000) reports, in an investigation conducted in a university in Kuwait, a

neighbouring country to the KSA and a country in the Gulf region, that undergraduate students have a positive perception about L2 learning and teaching at the university level. Nevertheless, it was a shock to the students to find that at the university level, they were expected to achieve a standard of English language proficiency, which was far higher than at school level. They also had to adapt to advanced L2 teaching methodologies. They commented:

S2: I was shocked when I started L2 learning here at the university because of the high teaching competency.

S6: The materials that I am studying currently at the university are new, not like at school.

S44: The teaching is considerably more developed here and the learning requirements are good, not like at school.

However, S52 stated: *‘We struggled a bit at the beginning when we started college but we managed to get used to the good teaching and proper knowledge of English’*. Based on Rabab’ah (2005) and Al-Nujaidi’s (2003) arguments above, this *transition* could cause difficulty for EFL students, as it is similar to moving from a low level, i.e. school, to a much higher level, i.e. university level, as Suleiman (1983) states. The students and teachers participating in this investigation complained of the challenges they faced due to their low proficiency level in English.

Several of the students expressed frustration at their progress in English at school and their subsequent difficulties at university level. However, it could be that the students were blaming the school English teachers for their lack of English competence to save face or due to the sensitivity to my potentially negative assessment of their efforts in L2 learning, which could also contribute to their loss of face. As is evident from the learners’ comments, they did not realise that speaking the English language and gaining knowledge of it would be necessary to their further studies and careers, as there was no liaison between the two stages (school and university levels). S3 for example, highlighted that he thought he should be at a much higher proficiency level, due to poor English teaching at school but did not entirely exonerate himself from responsibility. He suggested that *‘even ourselves, we did not really pay attention to learning English because of the context we are in, where we do not use English’*.

5.4 Language preferences in the classroom

Most of the learners seemed to be cautious when providing me with their responses in this interview question regarding using the TL. Some had either shown their competence in the TL (e.g., S13 and S38) by code-mixing their answers and using English in answering some of the interview questions, and a few were very frank in rejecting the idea of using English (TL) in the L2 classroom. For example, S10, stated that *'I prefer to use Arabic. It is easy for me'* and did not give any other reason. S14, although he was at A2 level, stated *'I prefer to use Arabic because is my mother tongue. Because my level of English is still low, it might be difficult for me to express myself in English as I wish'*. Others stated:

S2: Sometimes it is difficult to understand English. Therefore, I am obliged to ask the teacher to explain in Arabic so I can reply to him properly.

S4: Transmission of knowledge takes time for me to perceive; thus, Arabic and then English could make it easier for me to understand, because my poor understanding in English.

This can be a vicious circle where they see themselves as poor communicators in English so they do not communicate and the teacher speaks in Arabic to encourage them, but this prolongs the Arabic, which stops them using English. One group of EFL students agreed that they wished communication using English in the L2 class and even in real-life situations:

S13: For myself English is better than Arabic, particularly for writing. English is much easier.

S19: I prefer the English language. It is easy and we can get involved in the discussion.

S20: Certainly, English because I would like to be involved in the extensive use of English.

S38: I prefer to use English a lot. Speaking English is simple to me and I think this is because I started learning it at a very early stage of learning.

The students above were all in advanced level classes and therefore it is perhaps not surprising that they were keen to develop their English language further. Other students (e.g., S50, S53, S54 and S55) although placed at an advanced level, as specified in their college (College 2), still preferred to use their mother tongue as a medium of instruction in class: *'Yes, we are at an advanced level but we still cannot express ourselves and speak the TL easily, so, Arabic is preferable in communication with the teacher and colleagues in class'*. Although this group of EFL students appeared to have fairly comprehensive knowledge of English, they did not appear confident, suggesting that they may have been placed in the wrong level. This could be a result of not developing a placement test for

EFL learners (Sohn and Shin, 2007) at their college. This could also perhaps be due to displaying indications of language anxiety.

As a result of perceived difficulty in understanding and expressing themselves in the L2 and the domination of L1 outside the classroom, translanguaging was preferred by some students, which indicated they might need a 'safe' place where their L1 could be used, which would ensure a comfortable L2 learning environment but where communication in the L2 might be generated (Galante, 2014; Golmo-Narzoles, 2013), although this, of course, was only possible if the English teacher was either local (Saudi) or NNS Arab. Such an environment could be obtained by employing any L2 teaching approach that could inspire these Saudi EFL students or meet their requirements, as could be achieved by a post-method teaching approach (Galante, 2014; Fat'hi et al., 2015). Interestingly, while they expressed approval of modern teaching approaches, which would situate them in a communicative setting, and criticised the traditional teaching approaches (GTM), some of them still called for their use.

The majority of students who preferred a more traditional teacher-centred methodology in class, where Arabic was the dominant language, appeared to be lower performing students. This was probably an inhibitor for learners to use, speak and communicate in the TL (English) in the language classroom. It appeared that there were three sets of opinions emerging from the students' interviews about the whole lot in this investigation. They were divided in terms of:

- (a) enjoying the security of using L1 in L2 learning,
- (b) accepting the theory of using the TL in class but looking at different ways of explaining it (e.g. drawing pictures and body language and possibly translanguaging for facilitation of comprehension) and
- (c) the students deemed proficient and confident who approved of using the TL exclusively.

Thus, it seemed clear that the opinions of TL use in the groups of learners varied, usually according to their language proficiency levels. For instance, students who were situated in a beginner's class and some at an elementary proficiency level expressed their preference without hesitation for their teacher to use their L1 and GTM. Nevertheless, others accepted

the use of the TL but advocated resolving communication issues by using Arabic, while most of the highly proficient students chose to use the TL extensively.

Translanguaging can play a significant role in facilitating the L2 learning in the language classroom, as Baker (2001); Banos (2009) and Kavaliauskiene (2009) suggest. They believe that the translanguaging used in the L2 class could assist the comprehension of the concept of EFL, through the spoken messages of bilingualism which are conveyed (Creese and Blackledge, 2010). It could be also a factor in resolving difficulty in understanding the L2 (Banos 2009; Kavaliauskiene 2009). However, constant use of L1 could focus the EFL student on their native language and prevent them from thinking and communicating in the TL (Weschler, 1997). However, it should be borne in mind that the L1 naturally exists and it is there with EFL learners in the language classroom (Cook, 2010). Hence, Mahmoud (2012) suggests that proficient and competent English teachers need to bear this in mind and should lead EFL learners towards their aims without using the learners' L1, providing the learners with the oral mechanisms to support their use of the L2 as required.

Approximately half of the learners (24 students out of 55) who participated in the interview stated that they preferred to use the TL in class for discussion and communication with their English teachers and colleagues to learn, practise and develop their speaking skills in English and thinking. This could *'embrace the philosophy that talking and thinking go together, and assume that the students may have something to say beyond what the student's teacher or peer is thinking or already knows'* (Reyes et al., 1999, p. 202). EFL students may not possess enough English to discuss complicated ideas easily; thus, English teachers may have to facilitate their learners' responses in order to allow them to participate in communicative activities in the classroom (Mohr and Mohr, 2007).

Around one third of all students in this study believed that discourse extension and use of the TL could generate communication with the English teachers in class. If this discussion was generated, as they argued, the teachers would correct them and provide them with the correct form of speech if they made errors in speaking. For example, S35 added that *'it could help me to learn English and develop my level'*. From the students' responses in regard to correction and development of communication skills, they appeared to be motivated to use the TL in class, even when some of them were at a low proficiency level: Examples of their responses are highlighted below.

S11: I prefer to use the target language (English) so if there is any correction from the teacher to be made or any sentence that can be adjusted while I am speaking in English it can be made.

S31: I think using English is better than using my L1. Because when I discuss anything with the teacher in English, he will correct me and this will be useful.

S33: I prefer to use English when I communicate with the teacher and might acquire more words from that communication. In addition, he is a NS; therefore, I have to speak extensively.

I sensed that the responses of the students may have been slightly overstated, as they stated that they wished to be corrected by their teacher, which could be seen as an unusual preference for EFL students in a communicative setting, as error correction may generate shyness and nervousness may occur. Alhaisoni (2012) reports that making errors makes preparatory EFL students at the Saudi university level nervous, and teachers' correcting them could evoke fear of negative evaluation (Aydin, 2008). On the other hand, as the Saudi EFL students arriving at the university are aware of their weaknesses and possible errors, as Al-Seghayer (2011) proposes, this may reduce this nervousness and shyness and they may indeed request correction from the English teacher, as the two students above highlighted. Furthermore, Al Asmari (2013) demonstrates that undergraduate Saudi EFL students have the idea that effective L2 learning will take place if English teachers provide corrective feedback immediately. This perception seems to suggest, as Al Asmari states, that they desire competent English teachers to give them the correct answer promptly, as these students do not attempt to find the right answer and wish their teacher to 'rescue' them. Interestingly, during classroom observations two of the students above sat passively when the teachers used the TL in class, another example of the contradictory nature of their responses.

5.5 Perceptions of effective English language teaching and learning

Although there is little literature on the shock that the students felt at the very initial stage of their university level, this led to a reaction that could be seen as beneficial as they strove to cope with the advanced and high standard of teaching and learning expected in HE. They all claimed that they started to make additional effort to improve their L2 learning by becoming more involved in communicative interaction in the English language classroom. Furthermore, the learners' attitude towards L2 learning, as highlighted previously,

appeared to have altered and they began to take responsibility for being more involved in those communicative interaction settings. This was supported by T4, who stated that *'you can see them warm up and you can see the change in their learning attitude, which I find challenging at the beginning when they come to the university'*. The students explained that the university level English teaching methods and approaches obliged them to consider EFL learning seriously, be more involved in class, use the TL and begin to develop their English proficiency levels during their orientation year at the university.

These learners said they did not wish to be silent but wanted to use the TL comprehensively in class, although some of them did not wish to be involved in a full discussion in front of their peers due to potential embarrassment and fear of negative evaluation (Aydin, 2008). They believed that the active learning activities used by their teachers would develop their poor level in English speaking skills and would assist in future learning stages:

S1: I always prefer to participate in class so I can improve my English language level but this takes up to 3 months because I was shocked at the beginning.

S3: At the university there is a very good English language teaching. I can see that I am benefiting from it

S26: University will give us more knowledge and keep us more active in class

Coming from a passive approach, i.e. schools, the learners recognised that the university/college level gave more attention to English learning and teaching. The L2 learning time at the university was 18 hours per week, divided into approximately three hours on three days and four and a half hours on the other two days (please see University 1 and College 1 L2 learning and teaching policy, appendices E2 and E3). This intensity of learning an EFL might have contributed to developing these learners' English language knowledge, as well as underlining the importance placed on learning English.

S3: At the university level, three classes per day; they are making it very intensive and good

S7: At the university we get 4 hours per day, imagine the difference

S10: The university is much better. You can learn due to developed teaching methods used, you can participate and work with groups

S16 The university is assisting, particularly with the teaching and learning aids that are fully provided. We have NS teachers with some other teachers from other countries who are well qualified in English teaching, we can feel it.

S45: At the college we learn a lot, not like in school.

The students above discussed several points in regard to English language teaching at the university/college level. They highlighted that teaching approaches and materials and teachers' qualifications contributed positively in their L2 learning process. Interactive methods related to communicative teaching approaches that the EFL students referred to were used by their English teachers, and might support and offer learning opportunities for the FL learners to use the TL by communicating interactively in the language-learning classroom (Yoshida, 2013).

The qualification of the teachers appeared to influence the L2 learning process. Betts et al. (2003) demonstrate the effectiveness of teachers holding advanced qualifications such as Masters' degrees, in learning success. This could result in a 'high quality of teaching', which is described as the material taught according with disciplinary standards of adequacy and completeness and the methods used with the aim of enhancing the learner's competence (Fenstermacher and Richardson, 2005). Berliner (2005, p. 207) describes 'successful teaching' as referring to teaching which enables the learner to acquire a reasonable and acceptable level of proficiency. It appeared that the students believed that their teachers in HE were more likely to generate successful learners.

The university/college level also had some extra-curricular activities conducted out of class times in workshops for the students, such as projects and speaking tasks, which were associated with L2 learning classes, and which it was compulsory to attend. Every student participant had his own methods to gain further knowledge of the English language rather than relying on his/her mainstream educational establishment. Additional materials included: English learning through watching movies, listening to music, watching English programmes on T.V, and browsing the Internet, either 'chatting' with non-Arabs or searching for information about a particular topic in English (Miller, 2010). S34 affirmed that his L2 learning did not develop only from the college's English classes. He claimed that

'I learnt to speak English from movies, songs, browsing the internet by chatting. I also watched documentary programs in English on T.V. but learned grammar and other instructional learning in classes from schools, it did not help it is disappointing, but it did help a lot at the college'.

Furthermore, these types of L2 sources such as T.V. and documentary programmes might include a 'subtitle' support, which could assist students to match the words spoken in the programme with their translation. The learner's motivation to use such L2 external

learning sources helped his English language speaking and use of the TL. Films can be considered as a valuable method for L2 teaching, allowing FL students to comprehend more of the FL by interpreting the L2 in a complete visual setting (Donaghy, 2014; Nouraldeem and Elyas, 2014). Shrazi et al. (2016) believe that applying a subtitle mode while watching English movies can assist EFL learners to supplement their vocabulary. In addition, Roya et al. (2016) report that subtitling can also support the EFL students' spelling and writing skills.

Indeed, external L2 source might be considered as useful for independent L2 learning, which might assist some active learners in acquiring a greater knowledge of English language usage. The use of external sources generates an opportunity to improve at the student's own pace and within his own control, making errors in private, without the risk of criticism, the absence of peer competition and subsequent nervousness, (Hurd, 2008). Therefore, it can be beneficial if these external independent learning sources support students to use the TL and create more awareness of the English language. Hurd (2008, p.9) states that *'all learners, whatever their mode of learning, bring their own 'baggage' to the learning process and this encompasses a wide spectrum of individual differences that influence and are influenced by the learning process'*.

5.5.1 Preference regarding English teachers and L2 teaching styles

In the KSA, most of the EFL students had been used to the NNS Arab English teachers, either local Saudis (i.e., indigenous) or another English NNS Arab (e.g. Tunisian and Egyptian). Some of the learners stated that they found difficulty in understanding the lessons presented in class at the university stage by NS and NNS non-Arab teachers. They also added that NS and NNS non-Arab English teachers were not aware of their customs, social culture aspect and habits, and this might generate misunderstandings between the EFL learners and these types of teachers, as diversities of cultures can be manifested among these teachers in number of forms that involve politeness and directness (Medgyes, 1992). These aspects, as they explained, might negatively interfere in L2 learning and could constrain communicative interaction settings. On the other hand, all of these perceptions in the greater Saudi context and culture are beginning to change. This was the prevailing attitude until the last decade, during the time when I was an English teacher and experienced this phenomenon. This change in perception is shown by the emergence of Saudi EFL students to learn English and to understand about Western cultures more

willingly in order to communicate effectively with NS teachers (Nouraldeen and Elyas, 2014).

The beliefs and comments of the EFL learners in this study reflected that they are currently seeking English teachers who are skillful and have potential to provide a more collaborative and communicative interaction opportunities in the L2 class. Comparing their perceptions regarding English language teachers at the school stage, it seems that they did not perceive Arab NNS teachers as being sufficiently skillful, and that teachers need to develop their skills and language ability (please see Javid et al., 2012 and Al-Seghayer, 2011). The students sought to practise a more developed, ungrammatical form of communicative interaction, which could support them in using the TL in communicative situations in class, as a NS teacher would always do (Medgyes, 1992). However, the environment of every institution visited in this current study also played a significant role in learners' preference for English language teachers. The homogeneity or heterogeneity of English teachers' nationalities (NS and NNS Arab) appeared to affect students' preferences.

Every educational institution (university and college) in this study had its own independent regulations with regard to recruiting English teachers. University 1, for example, had a mixture of English teachers (NS, NNS Arab, NNS non-Arab and local English teachers who are considered as academic staff) in their orientation year. The other institutions (College 1 and College 2) were entirely different. All of the English language teachers were either completely NS in College 1 or, indigenous (local, Saudi) English teachers College 2, although both are under the auspices of the same organisation, the TVTC (please see appendix E3 and E4). Thus, the perceptions of the learners regarding their preference for English teachers might have a considerable diversity according to their experiences. In accordance with this diversity of English teachers' nationalities, please see table 4.2 of University 1, College 1 and College 2 in Chapter 4, p. 79, details of teachers and their learners.

The students' preferences regarding English language teachers were divided into 3 groups, although there were some dissimilarities within each perspective (please see table 5.2 below). The students' views appeared to vary for the reason highlighted above, despite the presence of competent English teachers at all the institutions, as the students stated. College 1 had only NS teachers, which denied the EFL students the opportunity to

comment from a fully informed perspective. Likewise, College 2 had only NNS Arab (local) English teachers and this may have led 14 out of these 15 students to choose to be taught by these teachers.

Table 5. 2 Students' preference of teachers

Group of Students	Number of students	Students' preference for teachers	Reasons
A	20 students	NNS Arab teacher	Potential interruption of L2 communication and misunderstanding
B	7 students	NNS Arab competent / Any competent English teachers	Facilitate English language learning and extensive use of the TL
C	28 students	NS English teachers	Facilitate English language learning and extensive use of the TL/ Clear pronunciation of L2

20 learners in this study (6 at University 1 and 14 at College 2) preferred NNS Arab English teachers as they thought it might be difficult to communicate with NS teachers. They stated that communication could be interrupted and could create misunderstandings.

Additionally, they explained that NS teachers might not be aware of the learners' L2 learning issues, particularly if they were new NS English teachers in the Saudi context. S4, suggested that *'I would like a NNS Arab English teacher, because it would not be difficult to communicate with him, I may not understand in English so, I need him to explain to me in Arabic'*. S42 for instance suggested that *'NS teachers might not be able to give us an accurate explanation of the lesson as we may misunderstand it except if they had lived in our society for a long time'*. The learner seemed to be suggesting that it would be supportive if the NS teacher remained in the KSA for some time, as this could allow him to gain knowledge of the culture, the Arabic language and, most significantly, to become familiar with the Saudi EFL students' L2 learning needs. Other researchers have also found that students prefer NNS teachers, particularly from the local areas s/he is more likely to be aware of the issues his/her indigenous EFL students encounter (Medgyes, 1992; Cook, 2005; McNeill, 2005). However, the NNS Arab teacher may have fewer advantages than NS teacher in terms of linguistic practices in the TL (Cook, 2005).

The students also claimed that NS teachers might find it hard to clarify some points in the lessons and would need to find alternative ways (e.g. body language) in order to further

explain these points. S48 further stated; *‘when I was at University 1, the only method NS teachers would apply if there was no understanding of the communication was using body language or drawing pictures on the board’*.

It was not obvious whether or not S48 could have comprehended all of his NS English teacher’s explanations through that process; however, he stated that he encountered a challenge in communicating with his NS teacher. Cook (2005) argues that NNS teachers (Arab and local in this study) share the learners’ mother tongue, and the existence of two languages (L1 and L2) in the teachers’ mind may clarify the explanation and simplify some of the more challenging issues in the TL. Thus, Cook (2005) suggests that if the TL communication fails, then the students’ native language would be a suitable tool to overcome this challenges. Lin (2007) also states that EFL learners could be better aligned with their NNS teachers who are aware of their L1, and who might also use and place more focus on translanguaging rather than NS teachers, as the former may have a greater understanding of their attempts to learn the TL. This could allow these EFL students to save face and enjoy the security of translanguaging, as was apparent in the classroom observations in some classes, discussed in Chapter 7.

The second group, which comprised only seven students, emphasised the importance of the competence of English teachers. In his study of FL teachers, Vélez-Rendón (2002) argues that what distinguishes a competent L2 teacher is his/her competence in the subject matter and awareness of pedagogy. Vélez-Rendón defines the knowledge of the subject matter in L2 education as being very familiar with the TL and proficiency in all its aspects; however, the awareness of pedagogy refers to the theory of L2 learning and what teaching strategies, techniques and methods are needed (e.g. the post-method teaching approach). This could reveal these English teachers’ reflectiveness and awareness of their EFL learners’ needs (Stingu, 2012; Fat’hi et al., 2015), as shown by some English teachers in this study (e.g. T4 and T7), as they chose a variety of approaches and materials which they deemed suitable and appropriate to support the learners’ acquisition of the L2.

Three students (S2, S5, and S11) in the second group preferred the teacher to be a NNS Arab and echoed some of the arguments put forward by the students in the first group regarding ability to communicate using L1. The other category of students (S12, S14, S17 and S52) did not specify any preferred origin of teachers; instead, they highlighted the need for competence and proficiency:

S2: If the NNS Arab teacher is competent in teaching and may have spent some time teaching and spent some time in an English-speaking country, it will be better for me than having a NS teacher

S5: I think a NNS Arab English teacher would be better, with one condition; to be competent in the English language.

S11: I prefer the teacher to be a NNS Arab English speaker but to be competent in the English language so he can use English fully in class, and use L1 (Arabic) where necessary.

S12: I do not believe there would be any difference if he was competent in teaching and have a proper knowledge of the language.

S14: There is no problem but at least he should have a good method of teaching and using pictures or videos and give the meaning of words and sentences.

S17: There is no difference in regard to this but what is important is his teaching methodology, and that his speech is clear and excellent.

It appeared from their responses that this group of students put greater emphasis on appropriate methods and a high level of knowledge from their English teachers in their L2 learning to assist them in using the TL in their L2 classroom, than whether the teacher was a NS or NNS. Moreover, S2, S5 and S11, stated that they preferred the teacher to use the TL extensively in class unless there was a need to resort to L1 in the case of difficulty.

The NS teacher as some of the learners argued might find it difficult to explain some of the vocabularies or communicate with them easily in the TL. Therefore, they believed that a competent NNS Arab English teacher would be more appropriate. The other students in the second group merely underlined the importance of the quality of their teachers' performance.

More than half (28 students) of the participants in this study stated that their preference would be a NS English teacher, possibly because most of them (20 students) were already taught by NS teachers. The reasons for their responses were varied, although most of them were in agreement that the most important quality that students need from an English teacher was to be able to speak, explain the lesson and interact with them in the TL. The other reasons revolved around some perceptions of NNS Arab English teachers, who, they claimed, did not have appropriate competence in the English language or the same fluency as NS (e.g. British and American). Thus, it appeared that the students believed that NS English teachers would provide access to more natural, proficient and competent English language than a NNS teacher. Al Asmari (2013) points out that Saudi EFL preparatory students at the university level are strongly in favour of being taught by NS teachers, and they possess a positive view of English native speakers their TL culture. This contradicts

what Abu-Ghazaleh and Hijazi (2011) report in their study regarding Jordanian EFL undergraduate students. They found that these students preferred not to be taught by NS teachers, as students believed that this would have negative impact on their culture, a view echoed by a minority of student participants above.

The comparison that the learners made between their previous local NNS Arab teachers, and their current NS, appeared to have generated a strong desire to be taught only by NS English teachers. This belief seemed to be a result of the interactive methods used and the developed teaching at the English classes at HE level. In addition, S32 explained *'I want my teacher to be a NS to teach me in English. I do believe this is an opportunity, as he will not speak Arabic'*. He suggested that he *'would not get the feel of the English language except from a NS because it is his mother tongue'*. He stated that the NSs' sounds, intonations and stresses, either British or American, would be clear and correct and learning English from them would more appropriate to him. S22 moreover, stated that NS teachers *'usually put us in challenging situations to speak the language by looking up the dictionary and looking for the meaning of words or by creating a communicative discussion setting with us in class'*. S13 also stated that he was taught once by *'NNS Arab teacher and his English was not that competent'* and added that this NNS Arab teacher *'sometimes made spelling mistakes'*. S13 was bilingual in English and had lived in an English-speaking country (UK) for more than five years. This resulted in a high level of English competence, which assisted him to judge other individuals' L2 competence.

5.5.2 Perceptions of L2 teaching approaches

The students explained in the interviews how university level English teaching approaches changed their English language learning attitude, process, use of TL and behaviour. The students' necessity to use the English language orally in both formal and informal situations in the future required a greater emphasis on communication skills and this was what the teachers at the university/college were working on primarily. As T4 and 5 other teachers explained in the interviews, and also from the observation of 5 lessons, it was clear that they used of a variety of teaching approaches and methods, aimed at meeting the students' needs in class.

S16: *At the university level the English language teaching methodologies are unique.*

S36: *Here at the college the teachers use good methods by applying technology along with their teaching.*

S38: *I am very happy about the English teaching in the college, their teaching methods are supportive.*

According to the learners' responses above, it seems that they have a positive attitude in this study towards English language teaching at the university/college level, as they praise it throughout. It is worth noting that positive attitudes in relation to teaching and learning are frequently related to FL achievements and associated with positive results (Noels et al., 2000). Referring to the argument of Suleiman (1983) and his observation and Malallah's (2000) findings concerning the transition of EFL students to the university/college level, it appears that they also found English language teaching was of a high standard, effective and highly demanding. This is in line with what S16 and S38 suggested in this study with regard to teaching methods, at HE institutions, when they stated that they are 'unique' and 'supportive'.

S36 also stated that the teaching methods used at the university level embraced technology, although he did not specify in what way. This technology was observed in the L2 classroom in this study and is discussed in Chapter 7. Regarding the ways in which L2 teaching can be supportive and unique, as the students highlight, Al Asmari (2013) and Javid et al. (2012) argue that effective English teaching and learning should implement a number of CIAs such as game-based activities, role-plays and simulation. These can involve EFL students in real-life situations in interactive classes and the students could be provided with communicative active learning approaches, as Al Asmari (2013) and Javid et al. (2012) affirm. This will be discussed further in the following section.

5.5.3 Active learning and communicative approaches

The intense EFL learning (timetable), communicative interaction practices and the diversity of the origins of the English teachers who all used collaborative English situations at that particular stage, created completely active learning according to the majority of students. Nevertheless, this did not exclude challenging moments in L2 learning, such as language anxiety in using TL, low communication competency and passiveness that might occur in the language classroom. The majority of the students at the university/college level were of the view that these processes of active learning enhanced their L2 development. S26 believed that these L2 learning practices would assist him in using the TL in a communicative setting. He stated that *'university and college L2 learning are active and will give us more knowledge and keep us alive and active in class'*. It

appears from their comments that it is not just about language learning, but also about keeping students motivated. Dörnyei (2001) argues that maintaining motivation cannot be achieved without effective teaching, which the students appeared to appreciate.

The majority of the EFL students in this study were eager to be involved in tasks that involved L2 interaction, discourse that could generate discussion and competition among them, even those who did preferred to use L1 predominantly. Their interest seemed to lean heavily toward the spoken and communicative interaction activities rather than reading or writing tasks despite many of them being ‘*one-word answer students*’ as T5 explained in his interview.

However, they were still in favour of these types of activity, as they explained that they believed that these activities encouraged them and would develop their English language level. The most favoured of these activities were CIAs, which revolved around L2 competitive learning games, as well as role-play, presentations on topics of their interest and group and peer discussions.

Most of the university/ college students who contributed to this research articulated a number of reasons for preference of engagement in CIAs. Littlewood and Yu (2011) state that the significance of negotiation for meaning lies particularly in group work activities; when students use the TL in interactive situations, this depends their practising it in group work as well as on whole class interaction. Similarly, Castro (2010) claims that CIAs employed in the language classroom may stimulate NFM, and may assist learners to focus on meaning. The students in this study did not give further details about what types of activities or TL they practised and spoke more generally, although they expressed approval, whereas the English teachers discussed fully.

The majority of students pointed out that CIAs could generate participation in group discussions in class. S38 for example, who affirmed this perception that

‘CIAs will help students to participate and be involved with discussion with their peers and group discussion, acquire more information and share it together. It is better than discussion with a teacher because they might be afraid’.

He justified his comment saying that the learners would find difficulty to communicate directly with their English teacher, as they were afraid to make an error. Fear of error correction will be discussed in detail in a later section of this chapter. Therefore, they preferred to participate with each other. S19 explained that the CIAs involved them in an

extensive period of speaking the TL in group and peer discussions, which he felt could assist him/them to use it comfortably in an informal situation elsewhere. S19 focused on meaning rather than form. Although he might not have been explicitly aware that in taking part in these communicative activities, he was also developing his understanding of the form of the language, it was clear that correct use of form was developing from his comment: *'we need to learn how to speak the English language before leaving the university'*.

These students viewed the interaction activities as a developmental instrument to their L2 learning. A number of them were situated at a low proficiency level. S8, an A1 level EFL student, explained that *'I always prefer to be involved and participate in order to enhance my English knowledge. If I stay silent, I do not understand anything'*.

However, S46 had a different view regarding participation in communicative activities: *'I prefer to be just a listener and do not like to participate a lot especially in things that I do not know; however, I always like to be involved in it to learn'*.

It could be argued that both of them may still learn and comprehend as much as those who take part, as they listen to the interaction that takes place in the class. Shintani (2011) suggests that the amount of input and clarity of the instructions offered to the EFL students and the interaction between teachers and learners in the L2 classroom provide opportunities not only to produce but also to comprehend the TL, even if the learners are passive in their interactive group activities. Interestingly, when I highlighted his stated preference for passiveness in interaction activities, S46 responded *'Oh, you mean activities?'*. Unexpectedly, his tone altered toward acceptance of participation in those activities and he affirmed that *'I love to participate because I wish to develop my English language knowledge and level'*. It was not clear if S46 was genuinely expressing his preference for participation or attempting to avoid being assessed by myself, possibly because I was seen as an expert and he was concerned to provide what might be considered an acceptable answer.

The students' comments on the use of the CIAs varied, and indicated that they were helpful as a focus on errors, extensive use of the TL and an important concern of this section - motivation in the L2 classroom. Thirty-six students out of fifty-five addressed motivational issues, stating that these interactive activities might urge them to participate and engage in the L2 in the classroom. S7 indicated that these activities are *'motivational*

and we could practise the language easily with these activities'. S13 stated that *'drama, group work and games activities will motivate the learners to learn and use more English in class'*. A common response explained that the CIAs involved them in an extensive period of speaking the TL in group and peer discussions and indicated that the English use in CIA discussion in class could assist the students to use English comfortably in an informal situation. The challenges in the TL communication will be discussed in the following section.

5.6 Specific challenges in TL communication

It is important to bear in mind that I desired to know about the students' specific challenges to TL communication in class because I wanted to see if the teachers were aware of the learners' needs and how they might address them. The majority of the students who participated in this research did not hesitate to clarify the challenges that they might face in the TL in the English language classroom. They were very open in their responses and comments which came as a surprise, because I had assumed EFL learners might be embarrassed and would hesitate to list their weaknesses to an individual perceived as investigating EFL learning and their English competence, particularly in the Saudi culture where saving face is important. However, in the Saudi context, politeness is seen as imperative and their candour indicated the possibility that these learners were also at ease in the interview. It was essential to raise the issue of challenges to English learning as it is widely acknowledged that Arab speakers find English difficult. Mukattash (1983) argues that Arab EFL students may make errors because they experience difficulties in producing the correct forms of the TL; these errors involve, in particular, spelling, pronunciation, syntax, phonology and morphology. Hasan (2000) reports that Arab learners also encounter listening challenges, according to the speakers' characteristics, listeners' attitudes and listening texts featured at the university level. The L2 learners in all three institutions highlighted several errors they make in the TL (English). These errors are listed below in table 5.3.

Table 5. 3 Learners' errors in the English spoken language (TL) and number of students

Syntactical errors (Grammar)			Phonological errors (Pronunciation)		Lexical errors (Vocabulary)
Word order (WO) & Sentence structure	Tenses (TE)	Both WO & TE	Sound & stresses (more than two syllables)	Silent letters	Confusion of the meaning of words which are spelled in a similar way
4 students	1	27 students	13 students	1 student	8 students

Thirty-two EFL learners seemed to be anxious about grammatical structure-based errors (word order and tense). It was their top concern when in a spoken communicative setting. Pronunciation errors came as their second concern with 13 out of 14 believing that they made errors in pronunciation (i.e., the difference between /p/ and /b/ sounds in a word) and stresses in words that have more than two syllables. Furthermore, one student thought that the silent letters in words were a source of his errors in pronunciation when speaking the TL. In addition, the vocabulary errors that stem from confusion about the meaning of words when there are similarities in spelling were considered by 8 students as common errors in their English spoken communication. The majority of errors that Arab learners, particularly the Saudi EFL students, would make in the TL are as follows:

Grammatical errors

Twenty-seven students, who said that their major error in speaking the TL in class was grammar, indicated both word order and tenses as their main errors in class. Examples of all (32) grammar learners' errors statements are shown below:

S1: *Grammar is the main issue. I feel that the word order is problematic to me*

S7: *Grammar, word order and tense when speaking, I do not know how to set them correctly, I know I need more time to work on that issue.*

S39: *I think the grammar error is the issue. Word order comes first and then the tenses. I am sure that all students are suffering because I am a student and I am in class and see what is happening. The teacher is always trying to help us.*

S45: *Word order and the tense are the problem. I think it is grammar.*

Four EFL students believed that word order was a more problematic matter than tenses. Some of these learners viewed word order errors as the core of sentence structure in speaking the TL. They were concerned that if their sentences of speech were not grammatically correct and well structured, the meaning of speech in English would not be understood. T4 explained the possibility of making errors because of the difference in

linguistic structure of the sentence between the two languages (Arabic and English). He stated that *'if you ask me about the major problems I would say, L1 influence. The subject-verb agreement and the word order, adjective and noun, I could very clearly see their L1 influence in grammar errors'*. T2 also provided an explanation in that regard and stated that *'students make errors in grammar because they use L1 sentence structure because in Arabic the verb comes before the subject and in English it is completely the opposite'*. In Arabic, the main verb of the sentence comes prior to the subject (e.g., verb + subject + object), which is different to the English language sentence structure and word order (e.g., subject + verb + object). Similarly, the noun in the Arabic language always comes before adjective (e.g., noun + adjective), which is also contrary to how the word order of English sentence is formed. Mohanty (2006) and Al-Shomrani (2010) agree that EFL students' L1 (Arabic), influences their production in English due to differences between the two languages in sentence structure and word order.

Mohanty (2006) and Al-Shomrani (2010) studies, describe students' confusion between the L2 they were using and their native language which generated these errors and others regarding pronunciation.

Phonological errors

Another error that the Saudi EFL learners referred to was pronunciation. They explained that pronunciation was a potentially embarrassing error because, as they might be misunderstood by the hearer, particularly their English teachers. One first group of students (13) considered that some of the sounds in English such as /'pi:/ and /'bi:/ as explained above, would be an issue to them. The Arabic language does not include the /p/ sound in its speech, leading to spelling errors (Mukattash, 1983; Salim and Taha, 2006; Mohanty, 2006). If the words park or push, for example, are used in a sentence, the Saudi EFL students would pronounce it a bark or bush, due to the absence of these sounds in the Arabic speech (Mohanty, 2006; Al-Shomrani, 2010), which could be embarrassing to them. Mohanty (2006) identifies this error as a consequence of interlingual transfer (Arabic to English).

Long English words exceeding more than two or three syllables were also considered hard to pronounce with their word stresses. For example, S30 highlighted in his interview that he encountered the word 'punishment' and found it complicated to pronounce. He

explained that instead of pronouncing it as in its correct phonetic transcription /'pʌnɪʃmənt/ he used to pronounce it /'pʊnɪʃmənt/. He stated that

'there are several errors that I make in class such as pronouncing difficult words properly because they are long. For example, I did not know how to pronounce the word pu...nishment. There are also some more like, benefi.....cial it is also difficult',

Thus, multi-syllable words, stresses (see Wahba, 1998) and the letters (ch) and (sh) together were also considerable barriers to the students. Just one student reported that silent letter pronunciation was his issue and he had been making that error constantly since he started his L2 learning.

Looking closely at the students' examples of errors, it appears that they also mispronounce the 'vowel' sound /ʌ/ to /ʊ/ in the words above, as the function of vowels' is different in English and Arabic (Mohanty, 2010). This can result in Arab learners disregarding the vowels. The students also mentioned another mistake, which they frequently make and that is lexical choice errors; this will be argued in the next section.

Lexical choice errors

It can be argued that lexical choice, which is a part of language semantics, may have not been given as much attention in the field of L2 teaching and learning as have syntax and phonology (Hemchua and Schmitt 2006; Mohanty 2010). One of the challenges that Arab students experience in their English language learning is learning lexis (Al-Shomrani, 2010). Lexical choice error involves a confusion of the meaning of words, which are written or pronounced in a similar way or have a similar sound (homophones). The last group of errors, highlighted by 8 students, could be explained by S20 when discussing the English word 'nail', which may refer to a nail on the tip of the finger or a metal nail that is hit by a hammer. He stated that *'when I used that word in a sentence, I may make an error when structuring the sentence and mix up their meanings and could use the wrong word, although they look completely the same'*. Hence, the process of choosing the appropriate word that led to the error in the selection of vocabulary was an issue (Al-Shomrani, 2010). Another student (S53) stated:

'There are some words in English that I do not know the meaning of and use in a sentence when I think they are the correct words, but then I find I have made an error'.

The other six students (S18, S36, S43, S48, 49 and 54) talked about making the same errors, which resulted in issues of confidence for them when speaking the TL in the L2 class.

However, it is worth noting that this type of error has nothing to do with the interference and influence of the Arabic language on the EFL learners, unlike other types of error, as this form of speech does not exist in the Arabic language (Al-Shomrani, 2010).

In view of the challenges for the students regarding errors presented in this section, it could be assumed that a possible cause is a lack of opportunities to practice in using the TL English in the language classroom or indeed outside it, as Hemchua and Schmitt (2006) and Llach (2005) suggest. It is likely that awareness of the errors they frequently made led the students to experience language anxiety, which will be discussed in the following section.

Language anxiety

The interviews with the EFL students produced a variety of responses regarding language anxiety regarding the use of the TL in class. Most (47) of the students reported that they might experience language anxiety when taking part in a spoken discussion in the classroom. Twenty-four of them highlighted that they would experience (a) communication apprehension, a type of anxiety that might take place in the classroom when interacting with other individuals, such as teachers or classmates, inhibiting their contribution. In addition, 12 students stated that their language anxiety stemmed from (b) fear of negative evaluation. They perceived that others might evaluate their spoken communication when participating in an interactive activity and recognise their mistakes in verbal and discussion situations in class, particularly their English teacher, but also their peers. Linked to (b), was the third category of language anxiety that these Saudi EFL students highlighted (c) peer embarrassment, as Horwitz et al. (1986) categorise and Stroud and Wee (2006) describe. Six learners preferred to remain silent in an interactive spoken English activity for fear that their colleagues might make fun of them in class. Similarly, 5 students of the 47 commented that they believed that anxiety regarding new topics made them nervous to initiate or take part in communicative activities. Table 5.4 below presents these challenges:

Table 5. 4 Perception of learners towards categories of language anxiety

Communication apprehension (CA)	Fear of negative evaluation (FNE)	Peer embarrassment (PE)	Anxiety towards new topics (ANT)
24 students	12 Students	6 students	5 students

An example of the first classification of language anxiety (communication apprehension) came from students S9 and S11. S9 stated that *'maybe most of the time I feel anxious and nervous of speaking English in an interactive activity because it is not my mother tongue'*. He said that *'this was because I have had a poor level in the English language from the beginning and it is not my native language'*. S11 similarly explained: *'I do feel fear and anxiety in communication in the English activities because I could make a mistake when I start a spoken activity with the teacher or my colleagues'*. However, he said *'this anxiety could be reduced or disappear with more practice'*. Regarding the reduction in anxiety, it was unclear whether he was talking from experience or whether he was aware of the need to practise in order to become more confident. This response was typical of many of the students' responses, as they were clearly conscious of what might assist their English language development, but, despite probing, did not always make it clear whether their words reflected their practice.

The second category of language anxiety which 12 of the students focused on was the fear of negative evaluation. For instance, S25 explained that *'I understand what is said to me but I become afraid to be assessed by the teacher in front of everyone if I make a mistake in my speech in the activity'*. This anxiety inhibited S25's contribution in class, although he stated that he wished contribute to such activities *'I want to talk and communicate in class but I cannot. I need more practice'*. Once again, understanding of the need for practice to become more fluent was expressed, but anxiety meant that the student felt unable to speak in class thus reinforcing a negative spiral of progression.

Similarly, S35 stressed that he feared to make mistakes when communicating in any type of spoken activity and this made him nervous to contribute. He explained that his colleagues and their teacher might judge his English language competence and his teacher might evaluate him negatively. He stated that *'when I speak English, I feel nervous because I might make a mistake and the teacher could assess my language level; thus, I prefer to remain silent'*. He additionally indicated that *'I do not like my friends to see me make errors and the teacher may have a bad impression about me'*. It may be appropriate

to indicate here that there are different types of reputational issues: external, as argued in the first section of this chapter but also internal, regarding the ‘face’ issue in the classroom, both of which arise from broader cultural issues in the Saudi context.

It can be assumed that no student wishes his teacher to have a negative impression of him, as the students in this research commented in their responses, and this appeared to lead to anxiety, which appeared to restrain the students from speaking in TL classroom activities. Ackerman and Gross (2010) suggest that positive and negative impressions of teachers about their students are associated with the amount of feedback the students receive from their teachers, which may be strongly related to FNE. This may lead to the learners having the impression that their teachers have positive or negative impression about their performance, as Ackerman and Gross (2010) report.

The peer embarrassment that 6 of the students talked about centred around the mockery that they perceived might result from errors that they might make when participating in a communicative activity.

This type of L2 anxiety was considered to fall into the third category. For example, S6 explained that *‘I will feel embarrassed and shy to pronounce a word incorrectly and my colleagues may make fun of me but these are barriers which I have to overcome’*. Similarly, S32 stated that

‘a person becomes nervous due to fear of making a mistake or that others will laugh at him or cannot say the word properly. This is what people always feel when they start learning a new language’.

The assessment of teachers and, to an even greater extent, the mockery of peers may increase competence-based anxiety, which is presumed to be the type of FL anxiety that learners feel due to their insecurity about their abilities in the language, which leads to anxiety with regard to the use of the TL in the language classroom (Stroud and Wee, 2006). Therefore, it can be difficult, given such types of anxiety to assist EFL learners in participating in spoken activities. As the teachers’ interviews were subsequent to the student interviews, I was keen to investigate which strategies they might employ to help students overcome their fears of speaking in English.

However, 5 students out of the 47 suggested a type of language anxiety which previous research may not have identified. This is anxiety about new topics in English language

learning lessons, which they said generate language anxiety and could make them freeze up in the language classroom. They said that failing to prepare the new lesson in class was the cause of this. S26 expressed his opinion that *‘every communication has its new topic and new things emerge. It could be that I did not prepare for it well, and this is when I might be nervous’*. S34 also stated that

‘when we are introduced to a new lesson in English for the first time, we become confused and may become anxious as the vocabulary is new, thus, we cannot participate in the activity’.

The students’ justification of this sort of anxiety, which arose from their lack of preparation of new topics of lessons, confirms what was suggested earlier, that EFL learners lacked L2 vocabulary. This deficiency in vocabulary seemed to limit the learners from possible engagement and communicative interaction with their teachers in the L2 classroom, which generated anxiety. Furthermore, this could also have been the result of the insufficient usage of the TL in their English language learning and lack of interaction in class before coming to the university/college.

It is important to reduce the language anxiety towards the use of the TL in the language classroom, as some of the English teachers suggested (T7, T8 and T10), which will be discussed in Chapter Six. In order to achieve this goal, there is a need to build their self-confidence and encourage their willingness to communicate by giving them supported opportunities to speak the TL. In the following section, there will be a focus on the confidence of the EFL learners, presenting the students’ perceptions as to how communicative interaction activities could increase their confidence.

Confidence in using the TL

The learners believed that more opportunities to take part in communicative situations would enhance their confidence, while at the same time considering them as a factor in language anxiety. This contradiction was obvious from their feedback in regard to both questions (Q11 and Q12, please see appendix A3). However, most of their comments to Q12 were to the effect that considerable use of communicative interactive activities in the L2 classroom would reduce their language anxiety and develop their confidence in using the TL verbally in the classroom. They agreed that initially, these types of activity would create language anxiety; nevertheless, they suggested that the more CIAs are used in the language classroom, the more their L2 confidence would grow, and vice versa.

Figure 5. 1 Cause of confidence growth and reduction according the students' perception in this study

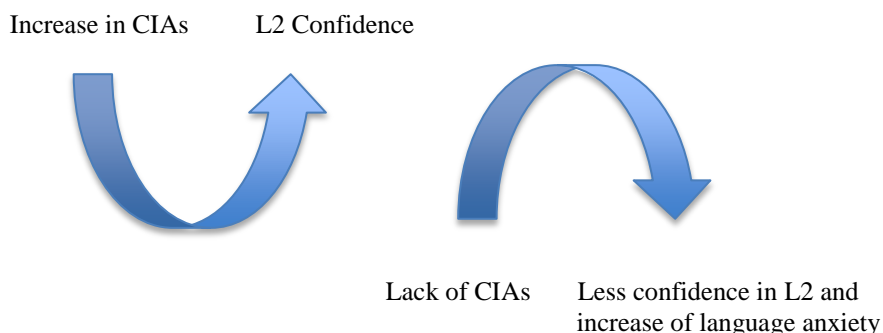


Figure 5.1 illustrates the possible correlation between extensive use of CIAs and the growth in students' confidence to communicate, and lack of CIAs and the loss of confidence and growth of language anxiety. Despite a dip at the outset, as the use of CIAs in class continues, students become more accustomed to speaking and become more competent and confident. However, if there is a lack of CIAs in class, although the students may feel relatively confident about their knowledge of the language, confidence in actually using the language may drop due to lack of opportunities for practice, leading to language anxiety regarding speaking.

Hence, the students' comments regarding the extensive use of CIAs in class revealed that they would serve to raise their confidence. S17 pointed out that these oral tasks made him nervous initially, but after some time and after coping with them, his anxiety dropped to a level where he became more confident to speak and communicate more easily in the activities in class and in informal situations. He explained that previously his anxiety usually arose due to errors he made when he began these activities in the L2 classroom. He added that these CIAs might motivate and encourage him and his colleagues to speak the TL. He claimed that

'CIAs are helpful and encouraging to speak up and could increase motivation and confidence of the students. Some students, could embarrassed being involved in such activities when making mistakes but I believe that you must face it and participate'.

He also believed that learning, and particularly L2 learning, will not happen if individuals do not make mistakes in its process. Teachers may foster a positive self-concept in EFL learners. S17 was a B1 level learner and therefore could be considered fairly competent in the TL. His teacher (T4), as it appeared from this particular student's and his classmates' responses and as observed in their class (Class 4), may have contributed to build self-confidence in his students. This may happen, as Walsh (2006) suggests, if language

teachers recognise the association between opportunities for learning and interaction, and can be very supportive.

Eleven other students also highlighted a need for greater deployment of CIAs in order to develop confidence in using the TL (English) in class and elsewhere. It was felt that this could increase a (a) willingness to communicate (WTC) in English and could result in reduction of hesitation to participate in any type of spoken activity that might take place in the classroom, as they suggested. MacIntyre et al. (1998) suggested that self-confidence considerably enhances learners' willingness to make an effort to communicate in a FL. However, the students proposed that it needed some time to get used to CIAs because of the language anxiety that might occur initially. Another group of students (e.g. S7, S13, S16, S18, S29, 36 and 48) also stated that these CIAs could (b) enhance the range of vocabulary in the L2 due to frequent involvement on a daily basis, which would lead to confidence and willingness to use English. Similarly, both groups of students mentioned above also claimed that these CIAs could generate enthusiasm and participation in class; however, they also suggested that time was needed in order to get used to them. For example, S19 stated that

'these CIAs would assist us in participating and speaking English, but we need more time at the initial stage when we are introduced to them for the first time. Thereafter, we will be willing to speak a lot and we can be excited too'.

S30 expressed a similar point of view: *'if we practised CIAs a lot when we started learning English, it would be an easy language for us. Thus, we need some time to get use to them and then we start to contribute intensively'*. S13 explained that *'these spoken CIAs such as discussion, role-plays and presentations could build the confidence of the students'*. He also added *'that these students however may need more time to cope with these CIAs as students might not have practised them before'*. Interestingly, S40 identified issues relating to the Saudi culture, which he believed also impacted on students' anxiety and WTC, stating, *'the use of a number of CIAs is a solution to language anxiety which is a challenge to Saudi students'*. The need to save face is paramount in Saudi society and S40 identified the challenge that many of the students encountered in class when being asked to speak in a language in which they considered themselves barely proficient, in front of their peers. This may also explain why so many of the students said that they knew that they should interact more in class, but were too anxious to do so.

5.7 Conclusion

In this chapter, the importance placed by the students on speaking and using English (TL) in the context of the KSA was discussed. The students expressed their perception that using and speaking English is significant due to factors in the social and cultural context. This led them to appreciate the need to learn and use English, for their own prestige, and for intercultural communication among multi-nationals who visit or non-Arab citizens who live in the KSA. Furthermore, the chapter focused on the L2 learning and teaching at school and at university, was discussing the apparently considerable difference in teaching and learning approaches at both levels, and explored the students' perception that the transition to the university level could lead to a shock to the students due to high standards of English learning and teaching at that level.

This chapter also discussed the L2 learning preference of the EFL students in the KSA, that is, the use of L1 or the TL in the university language classroom. It revealed that Saudi students desired to use the TL through CIAs in class; nevertheless, due to difficulties that the majority of them frequently encountered, most of them preferred an environment where translanguaging was in evidence, which they considered beneficial to support and facilitate their L2 learning.

What was seen as the effective L2 teaching and learning at the university/college elicited a positive attitude from the Saudi students and the view that efficient methods, materials and extra-curricular tasks used in the L2 classroom, may offer them opportunities to use the TL. The origin of the English teachers (NS, NNS Arab 'locals' and NNS non-Arab) may or may not encourage the engagement and involvement of EFL students in communicating in the TL in CIAs. Saudi students previously preferred a NNS Arab or local English teacher; however, this perception appears to have changed and requests for a NS teachers have increased considerably, possibly due to the students' previous L2 teaching and learning experiences.

In this chapter, the students also highlighted what they viewed as the uniqueness and support of the approaches to L2 teaching used in the university/college L2 classroom. A number of their English teachers employed a post-method teaching approach in order to involve them in CIAs and used the TL extensively. The learners subsequently expressed their admiration of the CIAs and the materials used in class to contextualise real-life

situations in the formal setting and to allow them to engage and participate in communication. They strongly believed that these CIAs would develop their English language knowledge and skills, particularly speaking.

The students openly revealed the challenges that they encountered in their L2 learning and communication in the TL. They drew attention to the errors they might make while speaking English in the L2 class and in an informal setting. Their main concerns were regarding syntactical errors such as word order and sentence, as well as incorrect use of tenses. They also stated that phonological errors used to be and still were an issue, particularly in pronunciation. They also highlighted semantic errors such as lexical choice errors in their spoken communication that were among the challenges they had been experiencing. They added that language anxiety was also another obstacle that could inhibit them from speaking the L2, while highlighting an interesting type of anxiety, that is, anxiety concerned with new topics. Finally, they stressed that extensive practice in speaking English through CIAs could play a significant role in reducing language anxiety and increasing confidence and willingness to use the TL.

The students' perceptions of the TL and their experiences were very helpful in trying to understand the complex nature of the use of the TL in English language teaching in KSA at HE level. However, perhaps due to the culture of the need to save face, both their own and the interviewer, their responses appeared sometimes vague or lacking in detail and it was difficult to get them to elaborate on certain statements. For this reason, the interviews with the teachers were seen as very valuable in adding an additional perspective to the way that English is taught in KSA. The findings from the interviews with the teachers will be discussed in the next chapter.

Chapter Six: Teachers' perspectives on language teaching and learning and using the TL

6.1 Introduction

Chapter 5 investigated the EFL students' perception regarding English language learning and teaching in the Saudi context. It argued the importance of L2 learning and using the English language (TL). It also demonstrated the school stage's challenges in L2 learning and teaching and how the university differed accordingly. The collaborative learning and CIAs in the university level L2 classroom were argued, which might encourage EFL learners to engage which could in turn facilitate production and development of communicative spoken English.

This chapter explores teacher participants' perceptions regarding university level L2 teaching and strategies. The chapter will include discussion of teacher's pedagogic preferences and the modes of teaching they use at the university level: interactive approaches, use of target language and extended discourse, and the levels of autonomy teachers think they have in their teaching. It also includes teachers' perceptions about students' motivation and students' errors in language use. These English teachers come from the different three circles of the global English model according to Kashru (please see Figure 2.1), as they are NS, NNS Arab and NNS non-Arab (i.e. Indian) English teachers, as highlighted and discussed earlier. This chapter emphasises how communication and spoken discussion, contextualising learning by using real-life situations, and the use of CIAs could generate dynamic settings and could motivate the EFL learners.

6.2 University L2 teaching and learning approaches

6.2.1 Interactive and communicative approaches

Each of the English teachers had their own perspectives, as T4 explained, regarding the shock that students almost always appeared to experience on arrival at university, as was also mentioned by the students in Chapter Five. Some English teachers at the university level said they employed a teacher-centred approach, presenting new information and then explaining it, instead of involving the EFL students actively in the L2 class and generating communicative interaction among learners right from the start of their studies at the

university/college stage. T4 stated that teachers generally preferred to take the approach of first trying to put the new arrivals at ease. He stated that *'English teachers do not want to give them a shock, so you normally see them, you know, use a very deductive method to, you know, teach in the language. So it is very challenging really using an inductive method for example'*. These teachers subsequently tended to utilise different approaches gradually in order to begin involving the students in more inductive and communicative interaction.

A number of teachers in this study suggested that they were willing to incorporate several interactive activities in the L2 classroom that were designed to help EFL learners in the transition to L2 learning at the university stage:

T3: *We have all the modern technology to facilitate this as well, so I would be very satisfied with those methodologies, combined with a number of TBL approaches, such as projects, reading circles, and speaking tasks to complement the coursework as we go through each module.*

T6: *It's never too late and they have the resources and they're spending them to facilitate learning. I think they're moving in the right direction; I have to applaud their effort when it comes to that. However, the students need some time to cope and get used to the active and interactive learning and prepare them for this particular stage.*

However, these interactive teaching situations in a number of projects and tasks needed time and knowledge of appropriate teaching strategies. As it is important that English teachers imply strategies in their teaching and in the activities they use, it is also required that EFL students arriving the university/college stage develop language-learning strategies, as these strategies are used by the learners in their language learning processes (Gani et al., 2015). It is important to highlight that language-learning strategies adopted by learners vary according to their level of performance in the L2 classroom.

Students come into university with a range of abilities in L2 and this can have an impact on the teaching approaches used. T7 highlighted:

'I have some standout students who are talented and have more English than others; there are some who are just beginning... I have been seeing my guys half-way through the course, starting to show some confidence; more speaking and more interaction'.

He raised the idea that his EFL learners needed prompting and if prompting did not take place in the initial part of the lesson, this would result, as T7 stated

‘If I didn't prompt them, I would say 80% of the class would be silent. That is why you really have to identify their interests; you need a lot of layers to generate that speaking... I give them their free practice if they need it. Sometimes we control their practice too much, so they need to have time to show what they can do; so that's the balance that we as instructors have to really try to manage’.

Some teachers said they used more interactive approaches focused on their learners and on communicative interactions from the start. Table 6.1 shows the different approaches that the teachers used predominantly in their classes.

Table 6. 1 English teachers’ preference regarding English language teaching approaches

English teaching approach/method	Teachers response
Communicative language teaching (CLT)	T2, T3, T4, T5, T6, T7, T8, T9 T10
Task-based learning (TBL)	T4, T3, T7, T10
Drilling	T2, T11

T4, and T7 suggested that they were not strongly attached to a specific teaching approach and chose to use what they felt was beneficial, to and suitable for their EFL learners in the language classroom. T4 proposed that *‘I would not normally confine myself to one particular method of teaching, but I think, given the Saudi context, it's better to make more of a holistic, eclectic sort of an approach’*. T7 also stated:

‘I have a communicative class so they are pretty active. I like task-based learning, project-based learning, and using technology in the classroom... if they're interested in their activity, giving them free practice if they need it, I always to look to what they need as a teaching method’.

Both these teachers took an eclectic teaching approach that ranged across a variety of methods, whereas other teachers tended to have one predominant approach. The teachers’ statements above indicate how their L2 classrooms language learning was organised. They believed that it would be preferable to apply the post-method teaching approach in their L2 lessons with a package of L2 teaching approaches, and not to limit themselves to a certain approach or method, in many cases using activities to place their EFL students in interactive and engaging situations (Galante, 2014). This may have assisted them, as observed in their classes, to be fully aware of any matter arising regarding their teaching, and to resolve issues that their EFL students might encounter (Fat’hi et al., 2015), as previously discussed in section 3.2.2, and which will be discussed further in Chapter 7. It

could be argued that the post-method teaching approach is robustly related to the instructional methods for real-life communication in the L2 classroom (Fat'hi et al., 2015); this has similarities with Ellis's principles of instructed language learning.

Ellis (2005) lists 10 principles of instructed language learning, which are also intended to be relevant to language teaching in various contexts (please see table 6.2 below).

Table 6. 2 Ellis' principles of instructed language learning (adapted from Ellis, 2005).

Instructed Language Learning Principles	
Principle 1: Instruction needs to ensure that learners develop both a rich repertoire of formulaic expressions and a rule-based competence.	Principle 6: Successful instructed language learning requires extensive second language input.
Principle 2: Instruction needs to ensure that learners focus predominantly on meaning.	Principle 7: Successful instructed language learning also requires opportunities for output.
Principle 3: Instruction needs to ensure that learners also focus on form	Principle 8: The opportunity to interact in the L2 is central to developing second language proficiency
Principle 4: Instruction needs to focus on developing implicit knowledge of the second language while not neglecting explicit knowledge	Principle 9: Instruction needs to take account of individual difference in learners
Principle 5: Instruction needs to take into account the learner's built-in syllabus	Principle 10: In assessing learners' second language proficiency, it is important to examine free as well as controlled production.

These instructed language-learning principles, as Ellis (2005) argues, are drawn from several theoretical points of view. However, Ellis (2005) acknowledges that the principles are limited in that they encompass only the cognitive aspects of learning, and do not take into account the social aspects. In this light, he suggests that a more comprehensive model, comprising both social and cognitive aspects would be useful. It could be assumed that these instructed language learning principles apply to this investigation, and might be a model in terms of what English teachers were practising in their teaching in their L2 classroom. This is seen in the balance of focus on meaning and form that the English teachers discuss throughout this chapter, L2 input and output, opportunities of interaction, and all the other principles of Ellis (2005) highlighted in table 6.2 above. Most teachers stated that they used, or would like to use, student-centred, interactive and communicative approaches:

T2: In general we focus on student-centered learning; we should use the communicative language teaching approach, as we have to create interaction in the classroom so we have good teachers and good outcomes

T3: *I try to adapt a communicative approach. I am always trying to get students involved so I am probably a very student-centred type of teacher. I want to try to get the students to talk, and am looking for maximal student talk time in every lesson.....*

T5: *I use a communicative approach, to get them to speak, present, explore issues, discuss, exchange. So it's all about communicating*

T8: *I do believe it is good to use the communicative approach for teaching....*

T9: *We are trying to do some communicative language teaching with these new methods here; our course is designed to help teachers do that*

T10: *Sometimes I use the communicative approach, and sometimes I use the total physical response approach, and the task-based approach as well...*

T11: *I apply the grammar translation method, and I wish I could apply some of the teaching methods like communicative language teaching.*

The teachers cited above did not give further details as to whether the discussion or interaction in their L2 classes was teacher-led or took the form of students' group discussion with the teacher as facilitator. However, as noted in the classroom observations in this study, it was both in three classes; those teachers' (Classes 4, 7 and 8), students appeared comfortable taking part in group discussion which had been set up by the teachers, but in the other classes, it was apparent that interaction and discussion seemed to be much more teacher-led, which seemed to contradict some of the teachers responses. Chapter Seven provides more details of the observation and how they fitted with the data provided by the teachers and students.

Furnborough (2012), in a study of adult learners, emphasises the importance of interdependence in language learning, and reports that there is a number of reasons for interaction and discussion between teachers and their learners, as well as among students themselves. Furnborough (2012) illustrates that some learners may eagerly attempt communication and discussion with their teachers if the interaction is teacher-led as these students may lack confidence and depend considerably on the teachers' prompts. The interaction and discussion that Furnborough (2012) is referring to revolves around inquiries regarding linguistic matters, such as issues in grammar and lexis, but not strategies.

As will be discussed in Chapter 7, classroom observations showed that not every English teacher managed to use active teaching approaches T4 and T7, for example, created a high degree of engagement, participation and communicative interaction in L2 learning. They claimed this was due to several factors, such as setting up language teaching activities and using methods that situated the learners in a lively, interactive setting. Some teachers talked about their use of communicative approaches (e.g. CLT) without seeming to realise

that this was a teaching approach. This may have been because those teachers did not hold a degree in English language teaching (ELT) or education despite the fact that some of them were English NS teachers, as highlighted previously. For example, T8 in the interview discussion talked of using a communicative teaching approach in his class without knowing its academic term.

Adult EFL classrooms as in this study are considered to be a community of practice, the setting that teachers and their students are participating and engaging (Warriner, 2010; Taylor et al., 2007). Smith et al. (2005) state that collaborative learning in pair groups that takes place in the EFL classroom can generate a high level of engagement when students work together on certain tasks, as they adjust the activities to the point where they want to learn, as one student, for example, focuses on vocabulary and the other on pronunciation (Harries, 2005). The instructional teaching approaches which include communicative approaches such as CLT and TBL can facilitate collaborative learning and can possibly involve beneficial engagement, even with students who have little skills and knowledge of English (Miller, 2010). The reason, as Miller suggests, is that they negotiate the TL with one another and take turns to finish the task assigned by the English teacher. This may extend to discussion in the TL, as T4, T7 and 8 claimed that they usually attempt to generate a L2 learning atmosphere where students were encouraged to willingly contribute in the collaborative learning process, whereas the other teachers said that they just only got their students to work in their groups. The extension discourse in the TL will be discussed in the next section.

6.2.2 Use of TL and extended discourse strategies

The teachers who said that they encountered hurdles in employing L2 teaching approaches and methodologies argued that their students could not cope with those approaches. T1 and T11 claimed that their students would engage and speak but only when communication was in L1 not L2. When the teacher returned to English, the students ‘froze’ and stopped talking. In addition, these two teachers also explained that their learners would request to use L1 because they said they would not understand anything when English was used extensively in class:

T11: They beg me all the time to use Arabic when I speak English in my teaching because they always say they don't understand English. I tell them, “keep listening to me because speaking depends on listening.”

T1: *I found out that grammar translation is very helpful here in our classes because I can see they understand but I think they can't engage in the class if I only speak English; I think they will feel bored and be silent.*

These teachers stated that they normally gave their learners instructions in the TL for the activities, which would support the L2 learning process in the TL; nevertheless, they said when this happened the students became confused so that the teachers felt they had to use the students' mother tongue (Arabic) to explain the instructions and clarify them, (please see Baker, 2001).

T1 said that he had experienced learners' boredom when he was communicating with them in the TL, which he claimed obliged him to resort to the students' mother tongue and to use the GTM, because of his students' poor levels of interaction, engagement and behaviours. This was borne out in the observation of his lesson, and also that T11. Students' resistance to interaction in these classes meant that they were forced to resort to the traditional methods the students had been used to before entering the university. However, some students embraced the idea of interaction, according to the teachers. T8 explained that

'there are some students who are very active, very proactive as well, I remember I had one student, who was a term one beginner here, and when I asked him 'What are your hobbies?' he looked at me and he said 'I enjoy computer programming in my free time'.

It was surprising to T8 that his apparently low-level learner responded to him in such manner. T8 stated that he immediately asked the student where he had studied. The learner replied that he had learned English at home and that his parents encouraged and supported him. T8 subsequently explained that the learners 'definitely want to talk'; however, when they are in groups, as T8 explained, *'they need to be supervised because they will use their native language'*. He further mentioned that when he was involved in the discussion with them they would immediately shift back to the L2. He concluded the discussion about the issue of using the TL in class by stating *'I have never seen teachers who said, 'Oh my students talk pure English in my class.' I have heard of them, but I have never seen it. I would really love to see it'*. He stated that the learners' group discussion in class were a challenge to him, obliging him to be constantly alert to monitor every negotiation among his learners in order to keep them on track using the TL and to keep asking them to use English in their discussion.

T8's learners, as all the students in this study, were monolingual, sharing the same language (Arabic). Mohr and Mohr (2007) argue that students who share a language may whisper to each other, as their L1 discussion will encompass the teachers' explanation, and clarify the process of learning that they have to complete. Mohr and Mohr (2007) suggest that the English teacher should not feel intimidated when translanguaging rather than only English is used in the L2 classroom. They argue that it should come as no surprise to teachers when learners, particularly younger ones, use elements from both languages (Mohr and Mohr, 2007), as the L1 is naturally present within the students who speak it and cannot be isolated (Cook, 2010). Additionally, Baker (2011, p. 289) suggests that EFL students ought '*...read and discuss a topic in one language, and then to write about it in another language, means that the subject matter has to be processed and 'digested'*'. Thus, as Baker observed, translanguaging might assist L2 learners to generate meaning in L2 learning and to enhance knowledge, which aligns with Creese and Blackledge (2010), Baker (2001), Banos (2009), and Kavaliauskiene's (2009) suggestions, discussed in Chapter 5.

Three teachers who could be considered through classroom observations as effective in using the TL and stimulating learners to respond, used the TL in extended discourse by drawing on the real-life experiences of the learners. In order to relate the language learning to the students' real lives, T4 and T8 stated that they understood a need for activities and resources that touched on the students' lives and experiences to stimulate them to respond in the L2, T4 stated that '*you are asking them about something that they have done or something that they have experienced, what I call their experiential reality... if their experiential reality is drawn on, then actually you can get them to respond much better*'. His strategy was to seek what could involve his students in using the L2 and extending their discussion and argument in class. T8 added that he was interested in the Dogme philosophy.

Dogme is a L2 teaching and learning technique that is free of materials which are concerned with educational matters and of materials which may attract the student, but may not be relevant to structured academic learning (Thornbury and Meddings, 2003). In other words, it can be described as a material- and textbook-free zone, dealing with real-life contexts within the formal setting, of the classroom freely available published materials can aid the language learning, but not become its only focus (Meddings and Thornbury, 2009; British Council, 2005). T8 stated that:

'I am experienced with the Dogme philosophy, which basically gives power and control to the students. Using real-life contexts within the classroom to speak English, experiential learning as much as possible, with the absence of a textbook, with the idea that the students themselves are the textbook, and that you are working on the students through the students'.

He believed that going beyond the norms of the teaching approaches and methods that every English language teacher uses is fundamental in constructing a real-life situation in the TL relevant to the students. He also considered that Dogme could have a powerful influence on the students if it was applied for arguments in the L2 in class. T8 obliged the students to use the L2 verbally in class by avoiding text material in the learning process and focusing on the learners as the source of the L2 learning process. Thus, he explained that experiential learning could assist the students in L2 learning and allow them free space to discuss and argue in the TL, drawing on their own experiences.

However, T8 stressed that this experiential learning that he had adopted would not exclude pertinent conventional materials to develop the L2. With a view to making these materials relevant to the students' experiential situations, it is essential *'to relate the subjects to the everyday experiences and backgrounds of the students'* (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 64). T8 underlined the relevance of materials used in his classroom to the EFL learners. These were used to establish use of the language for authentic communication. Coskun (2017) reports that the English teachers in his study believed Dogme in ELT to be generally beneficial, in that the lessons supported the EFL students, and because *'it saved the time spent for material development, had relevance to students' real lives and was entertaining'* (p.41). Furthermore, T7 also expressed to some extent what T8 had suggested and Coskun (2017) reported, with regard to the value of leaving the textbook aside and focusing on the students instead, as he explained that he preferred the freedom of having interaction with the learners to focusing constantly on the textbook.

English language teachers viewed TL use from a different perspective, but three of the English teachers' (T4, T7 and T8) comments were surprisingly similar, although they were from different institutions. Their answers emphasised that the EFL learners should *be given space to speak the TL* and that it was important to have an *open discussion in English* with the learners by including all types of questions in the discussion in the L2 classroom.

6.2.3 English teachers' autonomy over content and approach

Comparing the EFL learners to the teachers with respect to autonomy in the language classroom, it could be argued that the learners have no autonomy whatsoever in the context of the Saudi classroom. In Saudi Arabia, English teachers do not participate in decisions regarding L2 content, materials and learning and teaching needs. This is because, as explained previously in Chapter Two, the education policy, including EFL learning in the Saudi context, was and remains a top-down policy. The decisions are always determined by the people who are in power in ministries and administration, as AlFaisal (2006) states, as most of the content of L2 text materials are examined carefully and indeed revised constantly. The reason is to make sure that any type of text material conforms to meet the values, principles, customs and norms of the culture (Elyas, 2008). However, sometimes external interference, i.e. management of institutions, may go beyond this and could involve extra time for teaching and requests for completion of the syllabus due to preparation for exams, as T4 and T7 highlight further below.

English teachers at all levels of education in the KSA are provided with a similar pacing guide of the syllabus, guidelines and plans (e.g. exams) for the completion of studies in every academic year, which they are expected to follow (Mahboob and Elyas, 2014). As a result, this centralised system of education and its pressures (Mahboob and Elyas, 2014) may restrict the English teachers, limit their freedom and compel them not to attempt to alter their teaching methods or approaches (Mustafa and Cullingford, 2008).

The only autonomy that these English teachers in the study appeared to have was the selection of materials for lesson activities that they felt suited the EFL learners. The selection and types of external materials will be highlighted in depth in Chapter 7, when discussion of the observed lesson takes place. In this chapter, 3 English teachers above pointed out that freedom in planning L2 teaching and learning is essential to achieve the targeted outcomes and objectives of the English courses at the university/college level. T7, for example, explained that

'I like that freedom in language teaching here, it gives me the chance to really interact with the students, find out their strengths and weaknesses, and adjust the lesson plan accordingly to try to take them to the next level'.

This freedom that T7 alluded to was offered by his company (Interlink), which had a contract with College 1 (please see E3). He added that this freedom had given him the

opportunity to engage and interact with his students in class and become familiar with his students' needs.

Although the textbook (Touchstone) was decided on by the management of his employer (Interlink Company, please see appendix G1), T7 claimed that he still needed the variety and the freedom to use any material sources (i.e. exercises) that matched with the lessons regarding the content. However, T7 subsequently admitted that after if there was a test-based culture and traditional methodology in the setting he taught in, then he would be influenced by that. Expressing his attitude regarding autonomy in the L2 teaching in his class, T7 stated that

'Although that philosophy is one that attracted me, I found that within a year or so I was influenced by the culture to go back to the somewhat traditional tests and administrative time and was not really able to give the students the customised attention that they really needed'.

He also said that due to College 1 being a public educational institution, it was not easy to have that autonomy in their curriculum. However, he suggested that

'the English directors provide that freedom - but on a broader, upper level scale they (College 1) want to see tests, they want to see beginning and end outcomes, and what happens in between'.

The contradiction evident in what T7 explained above this philosophy did not seem to be an issue for him. He claimed that he supplemented the textbook as much as possible with freestanding resources, which were tailored to his students' needs. However, he remained conscious of the pressure to prepare them for a traditional examination, which meant that he was restricted in what he could introduce regarding materials and activities.

Kharma and Hajjaj (1989), Rabab'ah (2005), and Elyas (2008) believe that the Saudi language education teaching and learning is a test-based system, which is also what the Saudi EFL learners believe. This can generate a tension between teaching for communication and teaching for exam preparation among English teachers, particularly those who are teaching at the university/college level. T4 also supported these perceptions, as he asserted that *'our curriculum, our course is more exam-centred so you have to be more realistic and you have to prepare them for the exams'.*

It could be assumed that there was a moderate degree of autonomy offered by College 1's management in that, in T7's classes, they did not interfere in the teaching process. The college management that T7 was alluding to only focused on '*technicalities such as classroom hours, number of students, the exam dates, that sort of thing*', as he stated. However, T7 believed that the management might put pressure on the L2 teaching process by asking for results and the number of students completing their programme rather than an emphasis on the quality of the students' L2 proficiency. It seemed that T7 sought more freedom and wished that the management placed greater importance on quality more than quantity in order to facilitate the learner-centred rather than the test-based system he favoured. His criticism of the management for their interference and the autonomy, he claimed he had inside his L2 class regarding the use of any teaching materials he chose, as was observed also highlights the complex context within which the teachers worked and the measures they took to ensure that students were not only prepared for the exams but also able to express themselves in the language. T6 did not view the situation from the same angle as T7. He asserted that

'We have a lot of autonomy from our managers and from the guys up top to do what we think is best for the students. We have no one breathing down our necks saying, "No you have to do this". They just give us a broad framework, the European references'.

Although T6 later admitted some interference in L2 teaching in College 1, he still did not believe that the management of College 1 could put pressure on his company's management.

In addition, T4 and the other two teachers mentioned above had several things in common with regard to the material content in textbook which was specified by the decision makers. They all have appeared to have to some extent, freedom to use some extraneous materials in activities that would assist the learners in their L2 learning. However, it had been made clear that this should not exert an influence on the aims and outcomes for the L2 courses, which are related to exam preparation, and completing the syllabus on time prior to the exams. According to T4's beliefs regarding the curriculum being exam-centred, he justified his comments by claiming if modern teaching approaches and methods (TBL, CLT and so forth) were used, this would take up a great deal of time. He stated that

'If these up-to-date teaching approaches are used, imagine how much time you would spend doing all these things with the students, so you have to be practical, you have to strike a balance'.

T4 had previously worked in the assessment unit at University 1, combined with his teaching responsibilities, so perhaps understood the imperative to complete the courses by whatever means were most appropriate.

It seemed that T4, T6 and T7, among others, had little autonomy with regard to the selection of textbook, time of lessons, completion of the syllabus and other formalities (e.g. outcomes, exam preparation, class size etc.) but had autonomy within their English classes, which was extremely important to them. All English teachers in the institutions investigated, in accordance with Mahboob and Elyas (2014), mentioned previously, had to follow a pacing guide and plans designed by the management of the English language learning and teaching process in every module to complete the material content determined by the administration (please see appendix G1). Because of these procedures, it might be argued that the English teachers at the university/college stage should have full control of their English language classrooms and choices of resources (Mustafa and Cullingford, 2008), if they are to engage their learners. In order to potentially obtain that engagement, L2 teachers' connectedness with the EFL students could be important in that respect; this will be discussed in the following section.

6.3 Connectedness with the L2 students

Some English language teachers had developed good knowledge and understanding of their learners' strengths and weaknesses in the L2 learning. For example, T7 discerned his learners' wariness at the beginning of the course and attempted to put them at ease, rather than putting them under stress and would *'applaud them highly if they do something right'*. According to Al Asmari (2013), Saudi EFL university students perceive that in order to achieve efficiency in English language learning, English teachers should have a good working relationship with students. As Al Asmari (2013) suggests, the consensus among these students is that English is learnt more easily if English teachers keep their language classes flexible, and create an atmosphere for the students in which their interest will be completely focused on L2 activities. T7 similarly explained, in line with Al Asmari's (2013) suggestion, that it was necessary to investigate the learners' interests and attempt to create the classroom condition in order eventually to raise the level of their L2 by involving them in active learning. He stated the importance of identifying student interests so that they *'react very positively to you as an instructor and also to their classmates, and they look forward to coming to your class instead of running from it'*.

In the interview, T7 showed understanding of his learners' behaviours, revealing intuitiveness, a 'connectedness' and awareness of the need for a good relationship with his students. T8's connectedness also appeared, to be more professionally developed than the other English teachers who participated in this study. It was obvious in the interview that T8, together with T4 and T7, understood the learners' weaknesses and strengths and recognised the areas in which these EFL learners needed development. He stated that

'there is great concentration on grammar and not so much on pronunciation and perhaps listening and so on and so forth. Getting the students used to a new level of interaction is important, and it often needs to be brought in slowly with the average Saudi student, I've seen some students who, when they see the level of interaction and that the methods used are different from what they're used to, fall in love with it immediately'.

He additionally explained that

'they enjoy it, anything that doesn't have to do with writing. I have made the effort in that. But yeah, as long as the topics are relevant and method is somewhat unorthodox, somewhat, as long as the method is not straight, coming straight at them, if there's something unexpected that the students don't expect, it happens, then they remember it'.

It appeared that T8 was keen that his lesson should not be predictable and that his lesson plans were designed to stimulate interaction, related to the students' lives and experiences. This approach, he felt, would be beneficial to the students who would not become bored or be able to remain passive.

There were some similarities regarding what was said about open discussion and extending discourse in class by the different teachers in this research project. However, their perspectives regarding the importance of using the TL to communicate usually centred on how advanced level students would be comfortable in speaking the TL. With regard to lower level students, they generally advised a more structured, less communicative approach.

T4 raised the idea that his learners (i.e., B1 proficiency level) had the desire to speak and would like to extend discussion in class. He also stated *'when it is an open discussion and you throw questions at them, you find them vying with one another. So, I could see there is openness and they really want to speak'*. T4 stated that learners were always quite forthcoming, comfortable with the language and could come up with some answers when

he created whole class discussion. However, in group discussions he was aware that the students tended to hold back, not using the TL. He added that *'when I put them in groups and you get them to discuss something, more often than not, they dry up and do not speak; they are very different'*. T4 believed that students were more comfortable with discussion in pairs and in a whole class discussion. Thus, he indicated that *'I am always in favour of giving students space to discuss, negotiate, and speak a lot in class in pairs or in open discussion with them'*. He similarly stated that he had observed his students become energetic when these practices were conducted in the L2 class as all the class was involved in the TL discussion. He explained that *'when you have open discussions in class, you can see the spark in the learners' eyes and they are much more active and live'*.

It can be argued that this is engagement; however, the reluctance to become involved in group discussions seemed at odds with the students' engagement in other activities. Through sensitive handling of the perceived issue, T4 ensured that the students felt encouraged to speak.

With the view to structuring the power of learning in the learner-centred process, Crick et al. (2007, p. 272) affirm that the learning should focus on the learners, and that the learning process should be a natural and continuous one; these are *'considered to be the core of the learner-centred principles'*. Crick et al. (2007) further argue that without these two factors, the process of learning may become an obstacle and contribute to the possibility of isolation, intimidation and nervousness in the classroom, negative elements which the three English teachers cited above attempted to avoid during the learning and teaching processes in their classes, as they suggested. As a result, these three teachers appeared to try to do what Crick et al. suggest; that is, to focus on the positive interpersonal and learning factors that contribute to making learners feel appreciated as individuals, respected, and cared about, in a secure learning setting. These practices, as Crick et al. state, can include creating a rapport with each student, helping students to develop a rapport with their peers, and assisting learners to value their own abilities, which may lead to a learner-centred situation among EFL students.

T4 also explained that discussion in class could create turn-taking in the open discussion by introducing a responsive discourse pattern between the learners and the teacher. He states that *'I keep telling them that I do not hear enough noise. I want them to make noise, I want the class to be alive and ask questions and answer them'*.

Turn-taking which includes questioning and responding promotes thinking in class and giving feedback which are considered fundamental factors of the L2 classroom (Rymes, 2009). In addition, Nunan (1995, p. 155) claims that *'it is the learner who must remain at the center of the process, for no matter how much energy and effort we expend, it is the learner who has to do the learning'*. By enabling learners to contribute to discussion by initiating and asking and responding to open questions and providing feedback, teachers can ensure that the learners stay at the heart of the learning process.

T4 compared his intermediate (B1) proficiency level students (Class 4) and the low proficiency level students. He stated that *'you have to goad low level students a lot, coax them, motivate them'*, adding,

'do you know why these low-level students probably do not speak up? It is not just the fact they do not know anything but also their diffidence; they think that if they speak they might make mistakes or their classmates might make fun of them'.

Other participants also mentioned this aspect:

- T1: [S]ometimes when I speak only in English, they prefer to be silent because they do not want anyone one to judge or laugh at them.
- T11: [M]aybe they are shy of being weak in English or to make mistakes in front of their peers.
- T5: [W]e need to focus on group work and also more communication because I feel a lot of them are very shy.
- T2: They are not afraid of making mistakes while they are talking to me. But when they talk to peers they are. I think it's peer anxiety, not teacher anxiety.
- T6: I have found that different things work for different students; activities definitely work, there are some shy students who you have to learn to recognise because if force them to do something that they're not comfortable with then it will have the opposite effect...

The teachers were clearly sensitive to the students' anxieties and fear of losing face before their peers. They seemed particularly aware of the quieter students and were keen to engage them, citing group work as a possible means of overcoming what they termed as shyness. The general sense in the teachers' responses regarding language anxiety in their classes is related to the students' self-concept factors correlated with L2 learning, such as self-esteem (Mak and White, 1997).

T7 and T8 agreed that, communicative situations can generate this anxiety (Nicolson and Adams, 2008). As this anxiety is competence-based and associated with communicative situations, the English teachers recognized that they had the responsibility to make a

considerable effort, not just to evaluate and determine the causes of that anxiety but also to address those feelings of discomfort and nervousness by allocating strategies for reducing it (Horwitz et al., 1986; Stroud and Wee, 2006; Hashemi, 2011). The responsibility teachers felt to reduce the anxiety in L2 learning in their classrooms meant that they tried, using a variety of activities to contribute to the EFL students' achievement of their goals in using the TL in communicative settings (Tanveer, 2007).

In order to consider some strategies for reducing language anxiety, Alrabi (2014) conducted her study in the KSA context and proposes a number of strategies, as do both Hashemi (2011) and Hilleson (1996). Alrabi (2014) recommends that:

- English teachers should act as models and ideals in their classes, should not be hostile towards learners and should avoid being aggressive or overly critical, providing students with CF, as Ackerman and Gross (2010) also argue, while not blaming students. All the teachers interviewed stressed the importance of positive feedback.
- English teachers ought to encourage collaborative learning, in which learners work together rather than competing in the L2 learning process. Some teachers (particularly T4, T7 and T8) in this study extensively utilised collaborative learning in their L2 classes.
- English teachers should show respect, belief, and confidence in the EFL students, as well as offering them positive CF. This point was made by majority of the teachers in the interviews and could also be clearly observed in the classrooms of T4, T7, T8 T5, T6 and T9.

Hashemi (2011) similarly suggests that teachers should work on reducing EFL students' nervousness of making errors in front of their teachers, and their teacher should consider seriously giving them only formative assessments, which Hashemi calls 'assessment for learning', rather than a summative assessment of learning.

The English teachers raised several issues in the interview, which could be related to L2 anxiety. This revolved around (a) how *less confident students could impact their*

colleagues' confidence in the language classroom and (b) confidence could be related to *imagination*, as T8 proposed. T8 claimed that the

'problem that hinders speaking specifically is confidence, this is a big issue here, and I found that confidence has a very strong relationship with imagination. If one is lacking, the other is too; it is a vicious circle'.

He perceived that imagination could support the learners' confidence when speaking in English by introducing ideas, suggestions and points in the lesson on the topic in class. Expanding creative thinking in the classroom could be a factor in increasing confidence, as T8 discussed. He believed that it could lead his learners to communicate willingly in the CIAs in class. Thus, he stated that *'their confidence will be boosted when they come up with new ideas'*.

Furthermore, T7 believed that his learners might have gained some confidence during his L2 classroom lessons in the semester in which the fieldwork of this research project was conducted. He expressed his perception that his EFL learners were more communicative and more forthcoming in the CIAs in class. T7 said *'my learners are halfway through the course, and not only are they breaking out and starting to show some signs of confidence, but there is more speaking and more interaction'*. His efforts to create an atmosphere in which students felt comfortable and willing to contribute, had taken time, but were now showing results.

T10 stated that he supported his learners by scaffolding during their language learning process in order to increase their L2 self-confidence because they did not appear to be confident enough to be involved in those CIAs. He highlighted that *'I try during the whole process of teaching to boost their confidence - during the whole semester'*.

According to T10, activities and communicative practices can be a challenging experience for L2 learners. Scaffolding is an approach that can be temporarily employed in the L2 learning process in the language classroom. T10 aimed to aid L2 learners through encouragement and by suggesting elements that could be introduced into the conversation (Scrivener, 2005). The concept behind scaffolding is that the means by which expert assistance diminishes is adjusted as the learner gains proficiency, until it is eventually taken away when the learners have no further need for assistance (Hardjito, 2010). Wu (2010) explains that a teacher's responsibility is to be the facilitator and guide in the language classroom, and not all an all-knowing master of knowledge. Thus, learners

should be motivated to establish meaning via authentic linguistic interactions with others (Brown, 2000). However, T10 did not provide detail of the way he scaffolded his students' learning and it was unclear whether he was successful in his efforts. The EFL students' motivation and engagement will be discussed in the next section.

6.4 Perception of EFL learner motivation and engagement

The English teachers indicated that their EFL learners' anxiety was a result of their previous learning experiences, which had led to a lack of motivation and engagement. T3 and T5 highlighted that CIAs in class could encourage the Saudi EFL students to participate. T3 stated that

'my experience with Saudi classes they require some amount of motivation to participate, these types of activities such as a competitive game and role-plays are strong instruments to motivate the students, a well thought out starter or a warm-up as well'.

T3's comment aligns with Hilleson's (1996) suggestion regarding using role-play tasks as they can be a strategy to motivate students and can reduce EFL students' language anxiety, as discussed in the previous section. Moreover, T5 explained that once he observes that the learners 'dry out' due to the straightforward exercises from the textbook *'I immediately try to generate a competitive game-based activity to bring them back to the lesson as we did today in the lesson'*.

The other teachers did not comment on motivation regarding interactive activities, except T4 who only highlighted about the learners' general motivation in classes based on their proficiency levels. T4 stated that the low-level learners *'tend to be, uh definitely, uh they tend to be intrinsically motivated'*. He illustrated that he taught a low-level class and found the students *'were very hardworking, and willing to learn despite their low proficiency'*. Although other teachers were of a different opinion, due to the challenges that they felt low proficiency learners faced, T4 observed them to be intrinsically motivated, which may have been as a result of his teaching approaches employed. He continued:

'as you move to a higher level you could see that the motivation is more extrinsic rather than intrinsic, especially when I dealt with strong Level 4 students, I could see a sense of complacency, that; "Oh we know all this, this book is too easy for us", but then they would be more concerned about the grades. So the extrinsic motivation is there, they're more concerned about going to the College of Medicine'

T4 eventually concluded in this respect that

‘So that was an interesting observation because you'd expect good students to be more intrinsically motivated but here, when I compare the Level 1 class that I taught, which was fairly weak in terms of language proficiency and a much better class, a strong Level 4 class that I taught last module, I could see that the motivation was more extrinsic rather than intrinsic’.

Theory proposes, as Sato et al. (2008) report in their study, that L2 learners who are at an advanced proficiency level in English are inclined to possess self-respect and be motivated to a greater extent than those who are at a lower level. Similarly, English language students who have developed motivation are more likely interact and enjoy English learning, without worrying about the advantages of learning (Ichikawa, 2001). Matsumoto (2011) supports Gardner's (1985) assumption that students who are intrinsically motivated are those who are situated at a high proficiency level, which I tend to agree with. On the other hand, interestingly, this study suggests the opposite, that is low proficiency level students who are intrinsically motivated while high proficiency level ones are instrumentally motivated, as proposed by T4 in the interview. High proficiency EFL level students, according to T4, think only about scoring high marks in the English course at University 1 in order to be accepted for their preferred major at college. This aligns with Matsumoto's (2011) proposition, and some other studies' claims also support T4's suggestion. Thus, it can be assumed that although types (intrinsic and extrinsic) of motivation have a strong correlation with EFL proficiency levels (Ghanea et al., 2011), the direction of this relation remains somewhat unclear, indicating a need for further research and empirical testing (Liu, 2016).

The English teachers who contributed to this investigation also talked about their perceptions with regard to active learning at the university level. Four English teachers explained that they only used communicative, active learning in class. They believed that this would engage their learners in the lesson, as they always attempted to put their learners in a learner-centred situation, involve them in interactive learning and encourage communication and talk as much as they could.

This could be done through the English teaching methods and approaches that these teachers might apply or through the CIAs they might include in their lessons.

T2: *We focus on student-centred learning, so we have to use the communicative approach, we have to create interaction in the classroom so we have good teachers, good outcomes...There is communication in the classroom, there is interaction, but we look only for those students who are interested in learning, those who are active, and those who want to be active in the classroom...*

T5: *Our philosophy is more student-centred, so there is less emphasis on grammar, more emphasis on speaking and talking, we do a lot of activity-based learning; with level one students, we focus mainly on activity...*

The main thing is speaking, listening, interaction, uh, sharing ideas...

T6: *I think learning at this stage with these students and their age level should mean ideally that the students shouldn't realise that they're learning, they should just pick it up and apply it.*

I'll be honest, this can be an issue. Fundamentally there are two kinds of students, ones that want to learn who are the ones that are actively involved, and there are those who are forced to learn; however, those are here just to sit in class.

T8: *I prefer using as much interaction as possible ... I prefer the students to learn from each other as much, or even more than they would learn from me.*

Interestingly, two teachers above appeared to acknowledge that, although they used communicative approaches, there were some students in their classes who did not respond positively. It is possible that perhaps their classrooms were only partially learner-centred as their responses above indicate that there were students who did not take part in the activities and were left 'just to sit'. It could be that the EFL students needed an alternative L2 teaching approach that could stimulate them to contribute to the discussion in the lesson (Galante, 2014).

In the interviews T4 and T7 expressed themselves to be 'grammarless' teachers who believed grammar would be picked up in the communication situations they set up in class. However, this could be a controversial issue. Sometimes a need for grammar lessons is essential for communicative interaction settings as observed in some classes in chapter 7, (please see Sheen, 2003; Scheffler and Mickiewicz, 2011) such as Class 7. The communicative approach does not proscribe grammar teaching. In the framework of skill acquisition theory, grammar ought to be a tool, which eventually allows clear communication in the TL (Scheffler and Mickiewicz, 2011). Scheffler and Mickiewicz suggest that this cannot be attained without offering the FL students 'rules and use' and that a considerable number of CIAs is then required to enhance the fluency and accuracy of their performance. Thus, L2 teaching based on developing skills embraces a post-method teaching approach which involve CIAs, but does not preclude techniques which focus on form (Sheen, 2003), and the use of grammar with a focus on meaning as well as communicative situations (Scheffler and Mickiewicz, 2011; Fat'hi et al., 2015). Because of the limited time-scale for collecting data and the research design of the study, it was only

possible to observe each teacher once, therefore it was unclear whether grammar was addressed at some point in their lessons or not.

The teachers highlighted the types of interaction activities they used to engage and motivate learners. For example, they used presentations, role-plays, games, group and peer discussions. T5, T3 and T9 specifically identifying the application of the CIAs. However, they were not observed in practice although T9 used a game activity in his lesson. Other participants (T1, T2, T6, T10 and T11) indicated L2 active learning with the inclusion of group and peer discussions in class but only T4, T7 and T8 went into detail. T2 had briefly explained some CIAs that would be employed in the classroom and said: *‘those who are active, and do not want to be silent, they prefer to speak. They love to talk even if they are using wrong grammatical structures and wrong vocabulary; they still present in the class’*. However, this suggestion seemed to be in contradiction to what was observed in his class, as the majority of learners were silent and appeared unwilling to engage; there were no signs of activeness in class. The activities used in that lesson were straightforward material from the textbook, that it is, matching sentences and gap filling.

Moreover, T3, who had a great deal of English language learning and teaching knowledge, explained that *‘the communicative active learning approach, which can also be made interactive, is something that I think is very well received by the Saudi students. The communicative approach is again role-plays, negotiating meaning, making sentences, which are all very useful, but may be less popular than it take’*. He believed that this approach was not predominantly utilised, although he suggested that *‘Saudi EFL students would like role-play activities’*. However, these activities were not applied in the lesson as observed, although they might have been employed in other lessons. T3 acknowledged that the Saudi EFL learners preferred movement and active learning activities in the L2 classroom (e.g., competitive games and role-plays etc.). He named these activities as high type level activities, which could improve the output of the EFL students and *‘their activity rate tends to go up as you vary the lesson content’*. He named the lowest type of activity as that which cover the textbook material exercises such gap-filling and choosing one or two grammar exercises. These tasks, as he said *‘are not received well by students in the Saudi context’*.

T5 described ‘one-word’ Saudi EFL students in communicative interaction in class. However, T5 illustrated in depth how the focus in his class on giving presentations was

associated with group and peer work and how he could get his L2 learners involved in them. He affirmed that his learners preferred to work in groups and to be involved in, discuss issues, exchanging ideas on a topic and presenting. T5 stated that

‘they enjoy the group work, and as you can see we always use group work and generally they are active. I put them in a position where everybody has to contribute and then they always do group presentations so they have to speak. They like the visual effect so, as you can see in my classroom, I put a lot of visuals. They're visual learners, they interact and they enjoy presentation’.

T5 demonstrated his sensitivity to the learners’ preference and justified his method of setting group work activities in class not just because the learners prefer it but also because he observed that if they work *‘individually they struggle, but if they have a group they always have a captain so it becomes like a team, it becomes like a competition’*. He further added that competing in groups brings them entertainment in L2 learning and this could engage them in the lesson and encourage them to speak the TL in class. He highlighted that *‘we have competitions as well to see which team can get the highest points, so they like the group work; it makes them enjoy learning’*. In addition:

‘they are helping each other. When one student struggles, they always go to the next one, so they learn through scaffolding. The weaker students are sometimes mixed with the more able students, and they learn through activities, group work and scaffolding’.

Although he did not name it as such, T5’s response relates to social constructivism. Social constructivism rejects the presumption of an independent type of learning (Bednar et al., 1991). The experience of learning in interactive groups among peers is considered efficient in developing learning (Chang et al., 2009). This way of learning may include sharing information, knowledge, ideas and assistance, where they are needed, among students but there is still a need for the guidance of teachers (Chang et al., 2009), as T5 suggested regarding his students. However, it appeared that the main emphasis of CIAs that T5 used in his class, as he stated in the interview, were competitive games and presentations. I asked:

R: *So, what do you think is a better CIA to make students more active in class, presentations or competitive games?*

T5: *I think games, as when we have a game, that gets them going. Sometimes we will watch a video and we'll have a discussion*

R: *So, it's communicative!*

T5: *Communicative. We use a lot of YouTube videos in my class, so it gets them to think about the topic, game-based, activity-based, competitions.*

These activities, as T5 suggested, might involve the learners in breaking the barrier of the one-word reply as he identified previously and stated that *'these group work activities that we discussed allow them to keep on talking, speaking to their colleagues in English and arguing in their groups'*. Although Class 5 was not observed to take part in presentations or competitive games, it included group work, and learners were observed to discuss, exchange ideas and shared information about the topic delivered in the lesson to some extent in English. Sometimes there was interference of the L1 in the groups; however, T5 intervened to ensure they continued discussing in the TL, showing his persistence in class.

Similarly, in the interview T9 discussed interactive activities and explained that he liked to use in them with his classes. He said that their English course programme and materials were designed to assist the use of the communicative approach and interactive activities that would support the learners' engagement in the lesson and the L2 learning, indicating that he used the textbook almost exclusively. He stated that his class had just started to carry out some group work exercises that might encourage their engagement. He stated that *'we use some exercises like role play, interviewing, one and one important exercise I ask my students to do is to make presentations in front of the class'*. However, he did not provide details of how these activities were organised or the kind of support that was provided to engage the learners.

Three teachers (T4, T7 and T8) stated that they only used open discussion in either group work or with peers. However, they varied in the styles they adopted. T4, for example, preferred to organise the L2 classroom discussion for his learners either in pairs or open class discussion and avoid group discussions, which he had found not to be useful with his students, as he had experienced. He said that *'even strong students dry up. This has nothing to do with language'*. T7 and T8's responses were similar to T4. They chose to concentrate on creating a learner-centred classroom with open and peer discussion groups. Only T10 and T11 stated that there were no CIAs in their classes. Their justification was their learners' low proficiency levels, which meant, according to them, that they could not engage any of them in taking part in interaction. T11 stated that *'I do not have interaction activities because of the students' level and they are not motivated'*. Despite claiming to use the TL extensively, which was also observed, they claimed that learners were passive and unwilling to become involved.

Pellegrini and Blatchford (2000) state that the L2 classroom is a very particular context with specific aspects that differ from other settings. It is possible that both these teachers may have also encountered specific obstacles such as students' lack of self-confidence regarding understanding and using the TL (Chambers, 2013), aligned with a low level of proficiency. Levine (2003) suggests that inadequate training in the use of the TL and CIAs may lead to teachers' loss of control in their classes, and that the learners' lack of communicative understanding may lead them to stop making an effort to learn the L2. Therefore, Littlewood and Yu (2011) suggest that English language teachers should be encouraged to use English CIAs in their classes, to motivate FL learners to interact communicatively with each other and with their teacher. T10 and T11, however, appeared to have decided that attempting to generate interaction was not possible with their classes.

Comprehension of many of the teachers, in particular T4, T7 and T8 concerning their learners' behaviours and learning requirements demonstrated these teachers' intuitiveness, and connectedness, to the students they taught. Blatchford et al. (2003) propose several dimensions to applying CIAs that include collaborative learning encompassing the selection of the appropriate activities and lessons and the role of the teacher, offering scaffolding and assistance to the groups by moving around the classroom. Teachers who have an awareness of students' needs may have the ability to identify their errors and what can be suitable in assisting them to correct them. The students in the interview had already identified what they saw as the main challenges regarding errors. The following section will discuss the teachers' perception of the EFL learners' errors.

6.5 Teachers' views of learner' errors

The teachers' views were very similar to the learners' views regarding their L2 learning and speaking errors particularly in syntactical errors and focused on word order and sentence structure. T1 commented that *'they mostly make errors in grammar, especially in word order. I think that the problem is that they apply their L1 sentence structure to the L2. This is why these errors take place, and this is why they all fall in it'*. This supports what the EFL students in this study suggested in Chapter Five as challenges. T1's point of view regarding the grammar errors matched T4's view of the same errors (i.e., word order and sentence structure) and what could be the cause of those errors. This is the only area of error that T1 highlighted in the interview. T2 also mentioned grammar as the main error students make in terms of word order and sentence structure. T2 states that

‘I think it's sometimes over grammar and sometimes they have literal translations for the words, that if they want to use the target language, I think this is the most important problem that we have, or we face with our students here’.

T5 agreed that the main issues and errors are *formation* (word order and sentence structure) as he called it and suggested the same cause that the aforementioned teachers had suggested. He stated

‘Because in the L1, in the Arabic language, sometimes the noun comes before the verb, in English sometimes... yeah so it's the formation... how to... so that's one of the main errors. May be intonation, as they do not know how to pronounce certain words’.

Furthermore, T3 viewed one aspect of the students’ errors as *‘certainly a major category I bring to your attention and that is verb conjugations, that is going from the infinitive to the past form and the past participle’*. He added that

‘In other words, going from different tenses, verb forms go/went/gone, see/saw/seen, be/was/been, this kind of thing. This area is something that is probably, if not the number one issue, then the number two issue when they respond in the TL’.

He then explained that *‘pronunciation errors are less of a concern that would affect speaking the TL’*. However, this was in contradiction to what the learners’ expressed, as they feared that their meaning could be misunderstood by the listener, particularly their teachers in the language classroom, if they made an error in pronunciation. Perhaps the fear of incorrect pronunciation was also a part of the language anxiety that the students had experienced, although for the teachers this did not constitute an issue. Perhaps the teachers’ focus on grammatical errors reflected the requirements for the examination, whereas the students’ concerns focused on their wish to use the language to communicate.

Moreover, T4 stated that *‘spelling continues to be an issue; spelling and punctuation’*. T5 similarly suggested that the EFL learners made spelling mistakes and have pronunciation issues. He explained that there was a problem with intonation but these errors were not viewed as very serious, as T3 had suggested previously. The spelling errors of the Saudi EFL students may vary between missing or incorrect vowels, disordered letters, and the interference and influence of L1 (Mohanty, 2010; Al-Shomrani, 2010; Mohanty, 2006). The reasons for these errors are, as Al-Shomrani (2010) and Mohanty (2006, 2010) explain, that the vowels in Arabic have completely different functions than they do in

English, which results in Arabic EFL learners disregarding them, leading to ‘vowel blindness’ (Mohanty, 2010). The spelling errors of disordered letters (e.g. first > frist) may be generated due to interlingual issues as students attempt to apply a new development strategy to internalise the English spelling system (Al-Shomrani, 2010). However, T4 emphasised, as did the other teachers, that the major problem was grammar in word order and structuring the sentence, and that this was because of their L1 influence (Mohanty, 2006; Al-Shomarani, 2010).

T4 also explained that missing out articles in the English sentence was another common error EFL students in speaking the TL.

He stated that *‘they usually miss out articles for example, so they would always say “he is student”, they would never say, “he is a student”. Small things, but they matter’*. Al-Shomrani (2010) reports that Arabic EFL learners usually make errors when using articles in the TL either in spoken or written settings. Students may omit articles, i.e. ‘the’ and ‘a’ from their sentences and may also add them where they are not appropriate, or even substitute one for another (Al-Shomrani, 2010). The other teachers also agreed that grammar was the main error the Saudi EFL learners made in their L2 speaking and learning.

The teachers also pointed out a number of challenges that the students might encounter in class. They all agreed that when the students came to the university or college they lacked spoken communication skills in the TL. This gave rise to another challenge, that of interference of L1, which was viewed as a serious challenge in the L2 classroom, which might hold back the learners from using English extensively in group and peer discussions. T8 for example, stated that *‘students have a habit of relying on their mother tongue in discussion due to the lack of communication in some English classes’*. T4 similarly complained about this challenge and suggested that *‘I always advise my learners and say to them ‘look, you have to think in English’ if you keep on translating then you never can be fluent’*. He believed that developing fluency was also a challenge in the TL classroom. T2 explained that the EFL learners lacked a range of vocabulary, and said that *‘they have the desire to interact and to communicate, but sometimes they don’t have enough vocabulary’*. In addition, all the classroom observation visits also revealed all the challenges discussed above, as will be discussed in the following chapter.

In terms of the Saudi EFL learners' errors when using the TL, the teachers and their students in this investigation appear to have arrived at a consensus regarding errors made in the TL in the language classroom. Their responses aligned with the students' views of their errors and also with the literature, which discusses the common errors that most Arab and Saudis EFL students make when speaking English as Mukattash (1983); Mukattash (1986); Rabab'ah (2005); Salim and Taha (2006); Mohanty (2006); Mohanty (2010); and Al-Shomrani (2010) pointed out. Although there was agreement of the learners and teachers regarding the errors, the students were more precise and gave more details and examples of these phonological, syntactical, lexical and semantic errors, perhaps because they were personally aware of each one. T4 was the only teacher of the five who elaborated in great detail regarding students' errors, revealing great awareness of his learners' weaknesses. The other teachers tended to highlight the general issues involving the learners' challenges in using the TL in class.

6.6 Conclusion

This chapter began by looking at the views of the English teachers of the L2 teaching approaches and methods they preferred to use or believed were suitable for use in the language classroom at the university level. It also explored the teachers' points of view on the communicative approaches (e.g. CLT and TBL), and the post-method teaching approaches that could contribute to interactive situations in class, either teacher-led or both teacher- and student-led, and how these might engage the EFL students through the teaching strategies employed and CIAs. It also highlighted the learning strategies that teachers felt that EFL students would have to develop in their L2 learning process and discussed whether these strategies could be influenced by the students' proficiency level. The learning strategies recommended by the teachers were considered to be beneficial to engagement in their use of L2 and become a factor in the extension of the TL discourse and its strategies. According to the teachers, interaction was more or less successful depending on the students' willingness and proficiency level.

This chapter also discussed strategies, which can be used to involve students in 'real-life' situational languages rather than reliance on textbook materials and how these strategies can generate interaction and engagement among students. The use of materials not related to the textbook may lead to greater teacher autonomy in the L2 classroom, although this chapter also discussed the teachers' perceptions of autonomy with regard to teaching

approaches and materials used in class which their educational institutions, employers and directors provided them with. However, if this autonomy is limited for reasons such as completing the syllabus, this could result in limiting possibilities for engagement and interaction in their language classrooms, as these teachers suggested. The chapter subsequently moved to discussion of the connectedness and relationships of the teachers with their EFL students and how this relationship might also generate learner-centred communicative interaction and engagement.

The perception of the teachers of their learners' motivation and engagement was also presented in this chapter. The teachers highlighted and described fully some types of activity used in the L2 classroom that students did not discuss in detail. The teachers also agreed regarding their Saudi EFL students' errors, remarking that the most frequent errors were related to syntactical issues and included grammar, which involved sentence disorder and incorrect sentence structure, attributing both categories to L1 interference. The teachers highlighted a number of errors that students might make in using the TL in the classroom. However, their explanations were not as detailed as those of the students.

The next chapter looks at the practices observed in the classrooms of the teachers in the study. Although interviews with students and teachers were the main data collection instrument, observations of what actually was taking place in the English language classrooms were seen as vital to support or challenge what the teachers and learners said and to establish as far as possible how the TL was used in the Saudi classrooms in the study.

Chapter Seven: Observed communicative English language learning & teaching settings

7.1 Introduction

Chapters 5 and 6 described the EFL students' and teachers' perspectives of English language learning and teaching approaches in the Saudi context. They discussed the perceived necessity of learning and using the English language (TL). They also described school and university L2 learning experiences, students' preferences regarding teachers and students' and teachers' preferences with regard to teaching modes, styles, and strategies in L2 learning. In addition, there was discussion of learners' and teachers' views of strategies to promote the extension of discourse and open discussion, implicit active learning and CIAs in the classroom, with the aim of stimulating the EFL learners to engage in class, which could in turn facilitate production and development of spoken English. L2 learning challenges occurring in the L2 classroom such as language anxiety and error correction were also highlighted.

In this chapter, discussion of the classroom observations also reveals various themes, which align with the interview data. The rationale behind conducting the classroom observations prior to the interviews, was, as explained previously, to provide further triangulation by ascertaining whether the teachers' and learners' perceptions of what happened in the classroom were compatible with what had been observed.

The classroom observation aimed to reveal the 'reality' of what took place in class, in comparison to the students' and the English teachers' claims presented in Chapters 5 and 6 regarding the use of the TL and L2 teaching approaches and methods. This observation could thus contradict or affirm the teachers' claims. Moreover, the classroom observations revealed the behaviour of the learners in the English language classrooms, and how their responses in that particular setting aligned or not with what they said in the interviews. It is important to acknowledge that there was always a possibility that teachers and/or students might have 'put on a show' and the events that were recorded were not the same as those usually practised. While remaining alert to the possibility of a 'show' I endeavoured to examine closely the practices of both teachers and students to check, for example, whether the students reacted with surprise at the teachers' moves, which might have indicated that the activities were not those they were used to.

It is inevitable that observation brings with it the ‘observer’s paradox’ where those observed may respond differently because they are being watched, however, I strove to be as sensitive as possible to all the potential meanings of what I observed to make sense of the English language classroom in the Saudi university context.

The themes emerging from the classroom observations related principally to English teachers’ interactional moves in general in the classroom, the approaches to TL/L1 and translanguaging used by NS/NNS Arab and NNS non-Arab teachers, materials and activities used to engage the learners or otherwise, teachers’ handling of errors, and the classroom ethos, all of which will be discussed.

7.2 English teachers’ moves in engaging EFL students in the L2 classroom

In order to promote communicative interaction and engagement in the language classroom, a considerable effort from the English teachers was needed, as observed in some of the classrooms in this study.

The eleven English language teachers who contributed to this research project, as discussed previously, represented three different backgrounds: NS, NNS Arab and NNS non-Arab. Every teacher had his own approach in presenting his lesson to the EFL students. This approach appeared to be based on each English teacher’s language competence, intuitiveness, and awareness of the learners’ needs in the L2 classroom, as well as the connectedness with their EFL learners, using a variety of moves to engage students in communicative interaction.

In addition to the categories the learners described in Chapter 5, the classroom observation visits also revealed some other successful teachers’ characteristics. Some English teachers in these classroom observations in this study appeared to be particularly successful in terms of obtaining the EFL students’ engagement and making the students willing to use the English language in class, for example, T4, T7 and T8. These teachers achieved engagement regardless of the students’ proficiency level. They used various techniques to involve the students in interactive situations, such as group work, problem solving and communicative activities. These English teachers could be considered successful because the learners produced TL of a high quality with regard to fluency and structures.

Other English teachers appeared to be moderately successful in engaging students who appeared willing to contribute most of the time but who at times found difficulty in expressing themselves in their group and peer discussions in English, resorting to their L1. This could have been either due to the class size (46 students) or to their low proficiency level or possibly a combination of both. In some of the classes, such as Class 3, the students participated at times but seemed to lose focus at other stages of the lesson.

Additionally, classes where the teacher could be considered less successful in engaging EFL students were characterised by passivity, apparent boredom and unwillingness to participate, despite the teachers persisting with engagement strategies. All three categories will be discussed further. Please see table 7.1 below.

Table 7. 1 Categories of successful engagement strategies

English teachers	Engagement strategies	Class
T4, T7 and T8	Appeared to be more successful	Class 4, Class7 and Class 8
T3, T5, T 6 and T9	Moderately successful	Class 3, Class 5, Class6 and Class9
T1, T2, T10 and T11	Appeared to be less successful	Class 1, Class 2, Class 10, and Class11

Successful English teachers

In the first category in table 7.1, with extensive engagement in the TL, EFL students' performance from Class 4 (B1 proficiency level), for example, confirmed what their teacher (T4) had claimed in the interview. English was used extensively by the teacher for stimulating open discussion between T4 and his students through a number of initial questions for the learners, which appeared very natural. These discussions included turn-taking and negotiation and students gave direct answers to what was asked them about the topic, reflecting their own opinions. The students appeared keen to contribute in the TL, and appeared confident in the use of the L2. Nonetheless, when learners were put in pairs to discuss some tasks they usually switched to their L1 once T4 was out of earshot. This behaviour could be due to the ease of using their L1, as the students were all monolingual. T4 was persistent, as will be explained later, and kept refocusing their attention on the TL.

Class 7 (A2 level) similarly involved a great deal of spoken TL discussion among the learners and their English teacher (T7), who used external resources, which seemed to encourage the use of English in class. Open discussion, turn-taking, negotiation and communicative interaction on the topic introduced to them were observed. Class 8 (B1 level) also showed the same behaviour regarding the use of and discussion in the TL.

Classes with moderate interaction

Classes 3, 5, 6 and 9 were all involved in active learning, engagement and discussion of some points in the lesson. However, the learners often used L1 in their discussions and did not speak English either with their teacher or peers. Although their peer discussions were designed to extend a discourse started in class, students appeared to participate timidly. Moreover, despite T3 being an English native speaker and using the TL fully in Class 3, his EFL learners, who were deemed A2 proficiency level, did not reply in English except for short sentences. The class was small, with six students; however, this did not seem to encourage the students to speak English. Nevertheless, T3 encouraged engagement by shifting to other activities. Classes 5, 6 and 9 had similarities with regard to the use of the TL and speaking English in class. T5 and T6, as native speakers, used the L2, as T9 did; however, the learners often seemed reluctant to use English.

T6's class contained 46 students. However, a large class size does not inevitably mean that the teaching taking place in class would be ineffective (Kira et al., 2013). The English teaching practices and techniques that T6 used appeared to engage the EFL students at some stages of the lesson. The learners were able to take part in interaction despite the fact that it was such a large class. Littlewood (2007) argues that large class size could influence interactive activities, preventing or minimising the use of L2 in the L2 classroom. Nonetheless, T6 appeared to succeed involving his EFL learners to some extent in interaction.

Classes with little interaction

The English teachers of Class 1, Class 2, Class 10 and Class 11 used the TL in class; however, the learners did not appear to respond positively to this. They remained silent and followed their teachers through the lessons' stages passively. This was perhaps because these learners were afraid of making errors in their spoken L2, and if translanguaging had been permitted or encouraged, this would have assisted the development of the language

proficiency of the lower level learners, as well as supporting the integration between the learners and their English language teachers, who have a good command of the English language (Baker, 2001).

In addition, the teachers tended to use the textbook fairly exclusively and their lessons did not include extraneous, possibly more relevant material appropriate to the learners' level. There was a further factor that could either have supported or hindered engagement and interaction in class - the 'proficiency level' of the L2 classes. This will be discussed in the following section.

7.2.1 Engagement and L2 class levels

As observed in these classes and the discussion in the previous section, the students' engagement varied among all L2 classes observed in this study. Furthermore, these observations showed that although some classes may be situated at a low level of proficiency, they could be very interactive and engaged, with the reverse also being true. Table 7.2 below demonstrates the levels of the classes investigated in this study as classified by their institutions, and the CEFR as a guide to their levels of proficiency where used in the institution (please see appendix E2).

Table 7. 2 Classes and their proficiency level

Class	Proficiency levels
Class 4, Class 8	B1
Class 3, Class 7	A2
Class 2, Class 6	A1
Class 1, Class 5	Pre-A1
Class 11	High level
Class 10	Middle level
Class 9	Low level

It appeared that the most successful classes in terms of TL use were those with high to mid-level proficiency students. The moderately successful classes were either in a low-proficiency level (e.g. pre-A1), such as Classes 1, 5 and 9 or a level that could be considered as being just above low proficiency (e.g. A1 and A2), such as Classes 6 and 3. It is logical to assume that there would be less use of the TL in low proficiency level classes (e.g. Class 1 and Class 2) due to the weakness of their level and performance and

not being able to express themselves very well in English. However, this does not explain how high or mid-level classes, such as classes 11 and 10 did not engage in using the TL when it could be reasonably expected that in higher-level classes, students might be more engaged and interactive due to their higher level of competence.

7.2.2 NS/NNS teachers and EFL students' engagement in the L2 class

As discussed in Chapter Five, 28 students, more than half of the students participating in this study, preferred to be taught by NS teachers and expressed themselves satisfied with English teaching techniques and practices in the L2 classroom. Similarly, the classroom observations also showed that a considerable number of classes visited which were taught by native English-speaking teachers included more engagement and communicative interaction with students (please see table 7.3 below of NS classes). Quint Oga-Baldwin and Nakata (2013) found in their study of NS versus NNS teachers, that NSs could be viewed as a linguistic model in that they guided their EFL students by promoting their engagement and oral production in natural communicative and spoken activities.

The NS teachers in this investigation used modern and up-to-date English teaching approaches, including the use of technology and video, L2 materials and instigated CIAs that could be appropriate and relevant, as well as managing to keep a fast pace throughout the lesson. Thus, the learners' responses, as observed in those classes, were generally positive and they engaged in TL interaction. This was particularly noticeable in two of the classes, Class 8 and Class 7. T7 stimulated his learners (Class 7) to a considerably high level of engagement and interaction in class by a variety of strategies. The other three classes (3, 5, and 6) who were taught by NS teachers were also moderately engaged, as discussed previously.

Table 7. 3 Origin of English teachers and their classes

Category	Classes	Origin of teachers
1	Class 3, Class 5, Class 6, Class 7 and Class8	NS teacher
2	Class 4	NNS non-Arab (Indian)
3	Class 1, Class 2, Class 9, Class 10 and Class 11	NNS Arab teachers

On the other hand, another class in which engagement and interaction was apparently an integral part of the lesson was taught by a NNS teacher. Class 4's EFL learners

participated actively and with no sign of passivity in their peer and whole class discussions and CIAs introduced by the teacher, as observed in class. Although their English teacher (T4) was a NNS non-Arab (Indian) and bilingual, he could be considered similar to a native, as he is from an outer circle country where English is used as an official language in the education system and government (Kasure et al., 2009), as highlighted earlier. T4 is considered to be one of the most successful teachers in this study, because of the high level of engagement and TL interaction in his classroom.

Five classes in the third category highlighted in table 7.3 above were taught by NNS Arab teachers who spoke the students' L1. Apart from T9, they did not appear successful in eliciting students' engagement or communicative interaction in the L2 class. Lin (2007) reported that EFL learners were extremely responsive towards NNS, in this current study, Arab/local teachers, and suggested that the NNS Arab/local teachers understood that their EFL students wanted to learn the TL and understood any challenges they faced. However, the learners in classes 1, 2, 10 and 11 appeared passive and disengaged, despite their teachers appearing competent, using extensive TL and all having a high level of qualifications and experience in L2 teaching. It was observed that these classes, apart from Class 9, did not include opportunities for interactive discussion and tasks that would involve the EFL students in participating in meaningful discussion in English.

Class 9 performed differently, as they demonstrated some involvement and engagement in some stages of the lesson when CIAs were used, which generated enthusiasm and interaction in class. Class 9 was a low proficiency level class with a NNS Arab teacher. As T9 was an individual who had the same L1 as the EFL students in Class 9, it was obvious that he was cautious not to overuse their native language (Cook, 2005) in the lesson. Instead, T9 took the opportunity to use the L2 in class as extensively as he could, as Cook (2005) suggests. This distinguished Class 9 from the other classes in the same category in table 7.3. The following section will discuss the English teaching approaches and methods used in the L2 classrooms, which showed how the more successful classes used what might be considered 'up-to-date' methods to engage students and support them to interact in the L2 classes.

7.3 Pedagogical approaches and methods used in the university's L2 classroom

The English teaching approaches and methodologies observed in the classes are shown below in table 7.4. Of course, since the classes were observed only once, no definite conclusion can be drawn as to the predominant teaching methodology used by particular teachers. However, the level of the students' engagement acted as an indicator of whether they were consistently the main types of approach taken.

Table 7. 4 Teaching approaches used in the observed L2 classroom

English teaching approach/method	Classroom observation
Communicative language teaching (CLT)	class 3, class 4, class 5, class 6, class 7, class 8, class 9
Task-based learning (TBL)	Class 3, class 4, class 7
Drilling	Class2, class 9 and Class 10
Presentation, practice, and production (PPP)	Class 4, class7
Grammar translation method (GTM)	Class1, class 9 and class 11

The English teachers in Chapter 6 highlighted how they preferred to use certain teaching approaches and methods in their classes. The classroom visits in this study allowed me to observe their L2 teaching approaches and methods. As seen in table 7.4, there were several different teaching approaches and activities in classes. It could be assumed from the table above that the teaching approaches and methods could be placed into three categories: eclectic, CLT/ TBL and Drilling/ GTM. Each category will be discussed in turn.

Eclectic and post-method teaching approach

Three teachers, T4, T7 and T9, adopted a number of English teaching approaches in their classrooms. T4 and T7 had considerable similarities in their teaching practices in their classes, despite working in different institutions. They employed CLT, TBL, and P-P-P (including drilling), and used what they judged suitable for their Saudi EFL students at different stages of the lesson in their classes, which seemed to suit the students' needs (Galante, 2014) at particular points in the lessons, and as those two teachers explained in the interviews. The variety of activities also included a grammatical and lexical focus. Both teachers moved the flow of the lessons smoothly from one activity to another. It

appeared that those teachers were attempting to generate engagement and opportunities for interactive communication in their L2 classes, guiding their learners with whichever teaching strategy they felt was appropriate.

The EFL students of Class 4 and Class 7 responded positively to the teaching approaches used and contributed actively in their peer and group discussions, negotiating with the topic, in what seemed a spontaneous manner. Although Class 4 was more proficient than Class 7, both these classes could be considered as being two of the more successful in terms of using the TL in interaction. Class 9, whose teacher also employed an eclectic approach, also demonstrated a moderate degree of interaction and engagement. Interestingly, L1 was used to some extent by T9 who was a NNS Saudi national.

T9's teaching approach was a mix between CLT, drilling and GTM in some of the stages with the students in Class 9. This mixture of L2 teaching approaches and activities seemed to oblige the EFL learners to engage and interact in the communicative interaction activities, as observed. The reason for this engagement and interaction appeared to be due to the communication taking place through the CLT approach, the simplicity of information provided by GTM and the practice that the drilling offered them to produce sentences orally and structure them through repetition before taking part in more open TL interaction.

Educators such as Weschler (1997) suggest that it is essential to have a mixture of GTM within extreme communicative settings, which he named 'the functional translation method', while bearing in mind that the full use of L1 and GTM should be avoided, as this could prevent the EFL students from thinking in the TL. T9 employed this approach, apparently intuitively, as observed in the class. The students appeared active and interactive despite their low level in the L2 and willing to speak the TL, despite occasional difficulties in communicating with consistent accuracy. This aligns with Creese and Blackledge (2010), as they suggest that translanguaging is flexible and is '*without clear boundaries, which places the speaker at the heart of the interaction*' (p. 109).

T9 used body language in order to simplify the meaning of expressions, such as cup of coffee and business card, which came up in the lesson. T9 took out his own business card from his wallet to show his learners what a business card was and lifted up his cup of coffee to show them what was meant by those words. When two students chatted among themselves, the teacher interrupted indirectly by asking them questions about the lesson,

without singling them out for negative attention, demonstrating a high level of sensitivity to his learners' 'face'. The number of shifts between the different teaching approaches and activities in Class 9 appeared to keep the students alert to the lesson and more engaged with the content. The teacher seemed to achieve his goal of the lesson dynamically, creating engagement and interaction at some stages of the lesson, although it could be argued that the learners achieved little 'real' communication. Nevertheless, as a preparation for 'real' communication through the construction of a solid framework for learning in which the learners' confidence was clearly developing, it could also be argued that with this lower proficiency level of class, T9 was using an approach that suited the context of his class and which could be progressed by increasing the level of 'real' communication as their confidence grew. The post-teaching method that these 3 English teachers (T4, T7 and T9) used in their classes, showed that the teachers had significant expertise, as a result of their learning and teaching experience, as well as knowledge of the theory and practice of teaching methods gained through their training as L2 teachers (Prabhu, 1990). This resulted in these English teachers being reflective, as they examined their teaching and evaluated its outcomes, identifying issues with and obstacles to the L2 learning, finding solutions to these and attempting to use new techniques and strategies (Fat'hi et al., 2015).

CLT and TBL approaches

This category of teaching approach was used by a number of teachers who were either considered as more successful in prompting students to communicate in classes, such as T8, or moderately successful such as T3, T5 and T6. These teachers were NSs who used either CLT or TBL approaches or both.

In Class 8, students appeared to use English for 'real' communication. Class 8 was considered at B1 proficiency level (CEFR) comprising 20 male students at College 1. Table 4.2 gives more details about T8. Although T8 did not have a degree in language teaching and had not attended a great number of additional teaching courses, his teaching approach and strategies appeared to engage his learners while keeping them communicatively interactive. The observed lesson lasted for one hour, and went through several stages of communicative, interactive and active learning.

T8 started the lesson by reviewing the previous lesson to prepare the learners for the following one observed, which focused on adjectives. He used CLT, as his English teaching approach and his CIAs were considerably competitive, which seemed to increase the rate of communicative interaction, engagement and extension of discourse in class (Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Richards, 2006; Mohr and Mohr, 2007). His L2 teaching approach appeared to create a 'positive communication climate' in class, where the learners appeared willing to communicate. He supported his students through the sensitive use of scaffolding to guide the learners at every step of the lesson (Golmo-Narzoles, 2013). His communicative approach appeared to enthuse almost all of the students of Class 8 and they appeared positive. There were, as observed, two students who did not seem so willing to participate in the discussions, but that did not seem to influence rest of the class.

The other three classes, which were considered as moderately successful in terms of communicative interaction, also used such approaches. Class 5 for example, was a lower proficiency level class, which was considered as pre-A1 level (CEFR), i.e. equivalent to beginner level or lower. Class 5 was conducted in an educational institution (College 1), which had a different textbook (Touchstone).

The lesson which was observed lasted for one hour and a half, and covered 'daily living' practices that involved communication with many different types of people in real-life simulations such as household chores, buying from shops, walking in the street and asking for directions. T5 held a Bachelor's degree in Sociology and had obtained postgraduate certificates in English language teaching (i.e. TESOL, CELTA, and Teaching business English IBET). He introduced his lesson to the students by providing them with new vocabulary and verbs (e.g. water, iron and cook), and then asked if they could possibly structure and put these words in sentences. This appeared to draw the students' attention, perhaps as it involved some of their daily life activities. The communication in Class 5 took place mainly through discussion and debate among the students and their teacher; the language used was basic and consistent with the EFL learners' proficiency level. Sometimes they reached a level where the communication broke down and they switched to L1.

However, the learners' response to the teacher's approach appeared positive and they engaged actively with the lesson. While this engagement did not reach the level of proficiency of the higher performing classes, a pleasant environment was nonetheless

generated in class. T5 appeared so involved that sometimes he was talking profusely but then immediately shifted to learner-centered activities. The shift from a teacher-centred environment to a learner-centred one was smoothly adopted, which did not generate upset in the learning process. Lynam (1981, as cited in Froyd and Simpson, 2008) suggests that English teachers have to elicit ideas from their learners individually for a short time and then the students can share and exchange ideas with each other. This could be feasible, as Richards (2006) proposes that by sharing ideas in learner-centred settings and CIAs, learners can match their interests and points of view by discussion and debate in their groups in the L2 class. This appeared to be the strategy that T5 adopted, although it seemed intuitive, rather than systematically planned.

Furthermore, the learner-centred approach that T5 adopted created, as observed, a sense of freedom and space for learners to have discussions in their groups and express themselves. Similarly, the involvement of T5 in those discussions while monitoring them also appeared to generate a warm relationship between the teacher and the learners as they were communicating informally. Although the communication on the students' part that resulted might have seemed basic, they were engaged and interactive and appeared confident. This engagement and interaction could be seen as a good foundation for further development of their English language learning.

Class 6's lesson focused on grammar (present continuous tense). The teacher began by displaying some pictures on the white screen, requesting his students to structure sentences from the pictures. T6 divided his A1 level learners in groups just prior to the warm up at the very beginning stage of the lesson, which no other teacher did. T6, who was a NS English teacher, had a Master's in Business Administration (MBA) (please see table 4.2 for more details) as well as a TEFL diploma qualification. The teaching approach and methods that T6 applied in his lesson were similar to those of T5 (CLT). In interview, T6 stated that he believed that such approaches would prepare the learners for appropriate L2 communication in the future outside the classroom.

It was obvious that the class size of 46 students placed a burden on T6. The CLT teaching approach that T6 used obliged the learners to speak up, giving them the opportunity to express themselves and contribute to all verbal discussions, even though they did so with some errors, perhaps because of their A1 proficiency level. With regard to T6's teaching approach, he did not appear to realise that he was practising CLT. He was asked in the

interview in this study about the CLT approach and his reply was '*I have heard about it, yes*'. However, T6 managed to bring the students to a high level of interaction and engagement in class despite professing little knowledge of the theory of the approach. The lesson included various activities such as presentations, debates, groups and peer discussion, working on tasks that were relevant to the topic from the text-book, but also recommended by T6 and chosen by the EFL learners themselves. The CLT teaching approach and the activities implemented in Class 6 seemed to support the students in their communicative interaction and engagement appropriate to their level despite the large number of students in the class.

T3 also used a CLT teaching approach, but TBL was also used in this class. Class 3 was an A2 proficiency (CEFR) level that was taught by a NS (British) English teacher who held a Master's degree in TESOL (please see table 4.2 for more information). He presented his lesson (What do you want to do?) by introducing some examples of sentences (e.g. I like to go swimming) at the beginning of his lesson. T3 used a projector and wrote sentences on the screen. T3 appeared responsive to his learners' apparent loss of engagement after the initial stage and moved quickly to set up TBL activity. T3's moves brought the learners back into the lesson by assigning tasks to them such as gap-filling and structuring sentences in their peer groups. These tasks selected were textbook-based activities. Nonetheless, the students' engagement and interaction was obvious to me in my observation of this class. During the TBL activity, the students seemed more engaged as T3 encouraged them to contribute by questioning them in English and setting up tasks to generate a more communicative and interactive setting, so that his learners could practise using English.

This was a very small class with only 6 students. T3 therefore managed to communicate closely with them although this might have put more pressure on them. Furthermore, the CLT and TBL teaching approaches that T3 used appeared to attract the learners' attention to the lesson, involving them in the tasks assigned in class in their peer groups to structure the sentences required by the teacher. The teacher worked hard to generate communicative interaction in class. All the learners took part in some communication, some more enthusiastically than others. The transition from the presentation phase to TBL that took place in Class 3 showed T3's 'reflexivity' in allocating a suitable approach to his EFL learners at that stage of the lesson, as T4, T7 and T9 did. The teachers' reflexivity in terms of practice and professionalism in teaching and education is when the teacher is seen as a

reflective practitioner, who interprets and reinterprets his/her experiences in order to increase his/her knowledge of the teaching profession, develop his/her teaching expertise and face challenges in class (Stingu, 2012).

As discussed above, the 7 teachers who used a mix of approaches appeared to engage their students more than those teachers who tended to rely on GTM and drilling. This contradicts what Littlewood (2007) proposes with regard to language teaching in East Asian classrooms. Littlewood suggests that CLT and TBL could generate issues in that particular context in its L2 classrooms. This could include L2 class management and other implications, which Littlewood (2007, p. 244) argues deal with *‘incompatibility with public assessment demands and conflict with educational values and traditions – focus on the external constraints which hinder the widespread use of activities associated with CLT and TBLT’* in the Asian context. The argument Littlewood (2007) makes implies that the communicative approach could not be used in all contexts; the context ought to be taken into account (Bax, 2003). However, it seems that the more successful teaching approaches in terms of engagement discussed above, such as CLT and TBL activities, could be applicable in the Saudi context and with its EFL students, as Al-Nofaie (2010) suggested in her study and as observed in all those 7 classes discussed above.

Other classes showed some engagement at certain points in the observations but did not appear to reach the level of communicative interaction, enthusiasm, confidence and active learning that were demonstrated in the 7 classes described above. It should be borne in mind that all of those 7 teachers engaged the learners in communicative interaction despite differences in the level of the students’ proficiency. They also implemented what might be described as some up-to-date teaching approaches and activities that seemed designed to promote engagement and interaction in their classrooms.

Drilling and GTM

Classes 2, 9 10’s teachers used similar teaching techniques and methods, i.e. drilling, and Classes 1 and 11 could be said to be taught by the GTM. The teaching approaches used by the teachers in four of the five classes did not seem to elicit interaction or engagement from the students; the exception was Class 9 in which T9 used an eclectic approach, as highlighted formerly. If it had been possible to observe the classes more than once, it may have been that greater evidence of interaction would have been observed. However, it seems likely that the teachers’ approaches described below were their usual practice.

Class 2, for example, was an A1 proficiency (CEFR) level taught by a NNS, Arab Jordanian who talked throughout most of the stages in the lesson. The EFL learners appeared passive at most of points in the lesson. Interestingly, T2 suggested in the interview that a CLT teaching approach would create a learner-centred lesson, which could involve the students in more communicative interaction. However, in the preceding observation, he did not appear to achieve this. Drilling was the only teaching technique observed in this class, although some instances of communicative interaction took place. T2 requested his EFL students to repeat almost all the words and sentences uttered in his class and did not emphasise communicative interactive settings, which appeared to create boredom, as observed from the students' reaction to T2's demands for the repetition of English words. Their drill practices did not appear to be engaging the students who appeared unwilling to contribute in the class.

Similarly, Class 10's teacher (T10) started his lesson by giving an introduction about the previous lesson through presenting vocabulary on technical tools (chisel, screw and bolt). He drew the pictures of these tools on the board and started asking the whole class about their lexical meanings. Class 10 was equivalent to A1 proficiency level. T10 was a NNS national (Saudi) English teacher who had a Master's qualification in TESOL (please see table 4.2). Following the pre-activity, he proceeded to use visual aids of pictures of tools on the projector to show them to the students. He used drilling, making his students repeat and pronounce the names of the tools in the pictures. Only drilling occurred in that classroom, which was not what was suggested in his statements in the subsequent interview. The students did not appear engaged in class because the type of tasks T10 used did not seem to allow the 27 students to interact meaningfully. The other reason may have been the difficulty of comprehending the TL used by the teacher, which was characterised by mispronunciation. The students responded in short sentences or simple answers (Rabab'ah, 2005).

Drilling can be supportive on occasion to EFL learners in terms of ensuring accuracy and fluency in certain types of activity. It may also offer a period of security, which can increase confidence (British Council, 2004). In addition, drilling can also assist English teachers to manage their classes and enable them to engage EFL students in regard to pronunciation and form (British Council, 2004). However, in the two classes mentioned above, it appeared that drilling was not successful in engaging the learners who seemed very passive.

Two teachers T1 and T11 used GTM and L1 in their classes. This also resulted in student passivity and little engagement in the TL. Class 1 and Class 11 were taught by NNS Arab (Saudi) English teachers. T1 held a Bachelor's degree in English and had no teaching experience and T11 had a Master's degree in TESOL and 15 years' teaching experience. Regarding the proficiency level of these classes, Class 1 was at pre-A1 level and Class 11 was equivalent to A2 level.

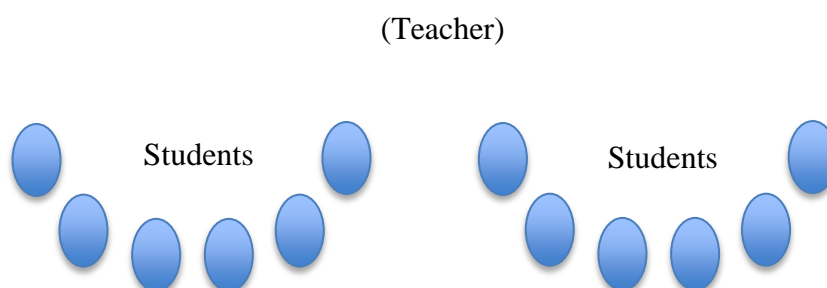
As observed in those two classes, there appeared to be no move by the English teachers to employ communicative methodology and the learners did not appear willing to use the TL to communicate. This could possibly be attributed to the low proficiency level of Class 1 but Class 11 was deemed to operate at a moderate level of proficiency. Students in both classes perhaps sought security through using the L1 and GTM, possibly to understand the concept in the lesson rapidly rather having it explained (Banos, 2009). Interestingly, students appeared engaged, as observed, when the L1 and GTM were used in the lessons (see Banos, 2009 and Kavaliauskiene, 2009). However, Weschler (1997) suggests it is not ideal to use L1 and GTM separately from other teaching approaches. He argues that too much focus on L1 and grammar could hinder the students from thinking in the L2. Mahmoud (2012) terms this issue the 'interference of L1'. Weschler (1997) supports his argument that excessive dependence on the students' mother tongue in teaching the L2 could generate an intra-language, which is neither L2 nor L1. Hence, it would be preferable to spend time on the TL and not take up all the class time working on L1. Tillyer (2002, p.4, cited in Stanley, 2002) points out that if the students speak L1 rather than L2, they will never master communication in L2. It seems that, despite the engagement of the learners in these two classes, the teachers may not have been helping their communicative development in the TL, which translanguaging could have achieved (García, 2009; Anderson et al., 2017), had it been in evidence instead of a greater focus being placed on the use of L1 and GTM.

As well as the teaching approaches used by the teachers, the resources and activities could also be said to be instrumental in engaging learners in TL talk, as observed. In the following section, communicative interaction settings will be discussed in terms of the use of the materials and activities in the L2 classroom.

7.4 Communicative interaction and engagement in the L2 activities in the lesson

Before going into detail regarding the communicative interaction and engagement in the three classes described below, it is useful to indicate the seating arrangements of each class for the purpose of interaction. This is important in order to assist in understanding of how seating arrangements might encourage learners' interaction with each other. Class 4, for example, had half-moon row seating (see Figure 7.1).

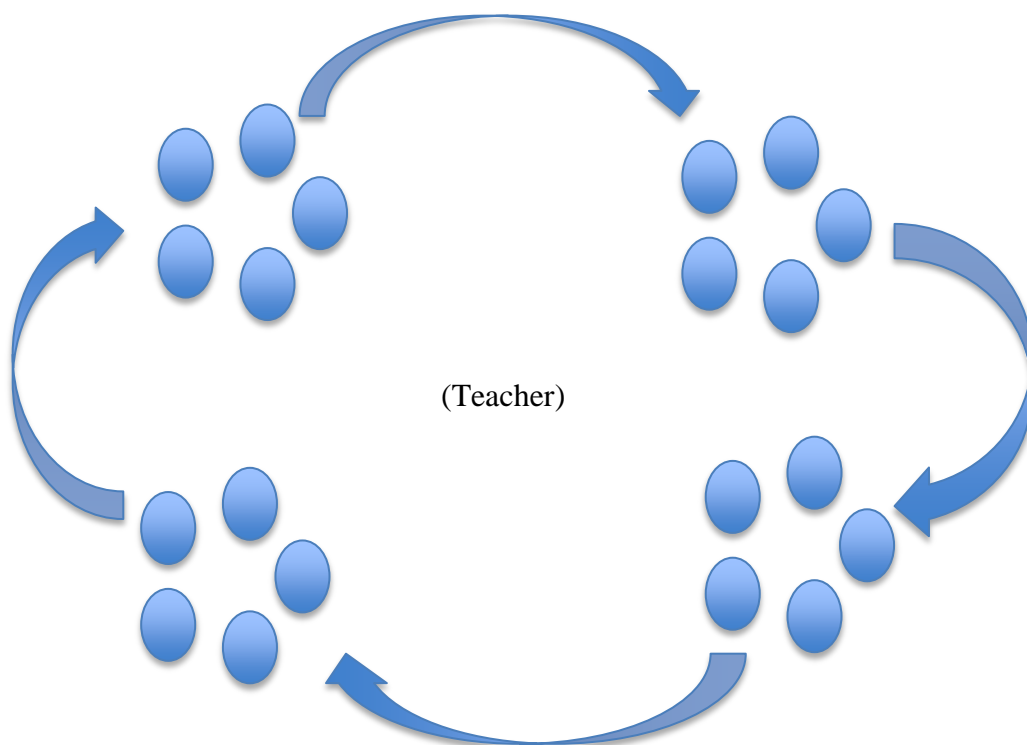
Figure 7. 1 Class's 4 half-moon seating arrangement as appeared in class



This seating arrangement appeared to assist T4 to divide his students for either peer or group discussions while they could also interact with him directly if there was a whole-class discussion. The seating arrangement facilitated the discussion, communication and debates to take place in CIAs.

T7 and T8 designed their classes' seating differently. They adopted a 'buzz group' shape seating (Scrivener, 2005), presumably in order to generate interaction between students and their teacher and the students amongst themselves, either in pairs or by changing their groups. This supported the teachers' position in the middle of the class, monitoring all discussions and communicative interactions. However, in T7's class, there was a total of 25 students, while there were 20 students in T8's class. Please see Figure 7.2.

Figure 7. 2 Buzz groups; people change groups occasionally, adapted from Scrivener (2005, p.89).



T8 changed members of groups in his class twice during the observation. Scrivener (2005) states that frequent movements in interactive groups within a short time might annoy the students; nevertheless, a few rearrangements could be supportive. The reaction of the students in Class 8 towards the arrangements of T8 seemed positive. Classes 1, 2, 3, 10 and 11 had traditional row seating. In Classes 5, 6 and 9 the students sat in groups in circles for discussion and interaction.

Regarding resources, T4 for example, played a video in his class and introduced a relevant topic, fast food, which it can be assumed, is a part of the students' everyday lives. Several CIAs were used in class. Littlewood, 1983, (cited in Abu Ellif and Maarof, 2011) indicates that there are two main types of activity that can be used in the L2 classroom. Littlewood (1983) identified these as (i) communicative functional tasks that target improvement of particular L2 skills that include communication (e.g. speaking and listening). These activities could also be (ii) ones that promote social interaction, which assures 'social and functional aspects of communication' such as role-plays, discussion sessions and conversations. The purpose of CIAs in the L2 classroom is to make students use the TL they are learning in order to generate authentic and significant interaction, which implies turn taking by exchanging information and viewpoints (Scrivener, 2005). An example of the sort of activity that T4 initiated is provided below:

The video T4 selected related to fast food appeared to simulate the students to discuss, as observed in the classroom, specific details in the video, debating a mix of display and referential questions provided by the teacher. The questions therefore demanded a mix of factual answers related to the video and personal responses. T4 divided his learners into peer groups and requested each group to raise their hands as a sign of completing the given task thus answering before any other group. The group that answered first in each task, scored a point. The learners in Class 4 seemed very engaged in their activities, both communicative and written. The students clearly did not feel the time passing, as one of the students who was situated next to me (researcher) stated in Arabic at the end of the lesson '*Has the lesson finished already?*' The atmosphere in class appeared to reflect T4's success in establishing a classroom ethos of engagement

T7 similarly employed a variety of means to encourage his learners in seemingly spontaneous engagement. CIAs imply any tasks that could promote communication, observe communicative incidents such as those in videos or listening to different sources of language (National Centre for Family Literacy, 2008). The learners in Class 7 watched two clips of videos that could be considered interesting to their age group (a clip from an action movie and a sentence structure video from YouTube), which appeared to stimulate them and led to full discussions. T7 showed a 4-minute clip from 'The Fast and the Furious 7' to his class. The learners' interest was apparent from their expressions. T7 explained to his learners that 90% of the English language used in the movie was vernacular (i.e. 'slang', mentioned to the students prior to the movie) rather than standard English. However, T7 also derived the activities of his lesson from this video clip (e.g. filling gaps, structuring sentences and presenting). The students were then requested in groups to summarise the movie clip and what took place in it. The students, engaged with every task assigned to them and did not appear bored by the discussion. The relevance of the topics in this particular class appeared to arouse their interest and possibly enjoyment in a formal setting in the classroom.

In T8's class, the majority of learners seemed to give their full attention to the lesson presented to them. The enthusiasm of the learners was obvious from their responses to requests from the teacher. T8 placed the learners in discussion groups as if they were in an informal setting. He supplied a competitive board game to each group (five groups) in class. This type of activity can lead to interesting interaction in the L2 class; however, a need to check the EFL students is preferable to ensure that they produce 'good value' in

terms of the extent of their English language use (Scrivener, 2005). The group who completed the activity first got a mark for the completion of the task and afterwards a mark for every sentence that was correct both grammatically and lexically. Subsequently, T8 asked two groups to discuss communication without the Internet and the other three, communication with the Internet. This also generated engagement, and participation of most of the students. T8 acted as a facilitator in class, allowed free space to learners to discuss in class creating a learner-centred situation aimed at supporting engagement and interaction in the lesson.

Class 9 was to some extent interactive, as the students responded to questions, gathered in groups, discussed and took part in competitive-based games activity. However, L1 was used extensively for instructions and organisation. Nonetheless, the use of game-based activity created engagement and motivation to use the TL in class.

In all four interactive and engaged classes discussed above, the teachers were clearly applying competitive game-based activities in their lessons. This was emphasised by T3 and T5's suggestions, which are discussed in Chapter Six, when they explained that the Saudi EFL students were in favour of active activities such as games, which T3 named high type level activities (i.e. CIAs). Therefore, it could be observed that through the use of games, task based activities and external sources such as video, Ts 4, 7, 8 and 9 stimulated their EFL learners to use the TL (English) in class.

Mix of CIAs and materials

According to researchers in the field of ELT, oral skills in the L2 could be enhanced by a variety of CIAs, including role-plays, jigsaw puzzle activity, information gap, problem-solving and games (Oradee, 2011). Similarly, Hedge (2008) proposes that the acquisition of appropriate communication skills is achieved through a mix of materials and activities such as role-plays or open discussion. Helme and Clarker (2001) suggest that free discussion, problem solving, turn taking, sharing and assessing ideas and other communicative tasks can be seen as indications of cognitive engagement. The classes where external resources were used appeared to be more successful regarding students' engagement in interaction. It could be perceived that relevance and appropriateness of activities supported the communicative interaction, although the pace of the lessons undoubtedly also had an impact on students' engagement.

Pace of the L2 CIAs and materials

It should be noted that ‘pacing’ is a common issue in the classroom (Goldsmith, 2009). English teachers in the L2 class should consider the time that they might take for a CIA, the period that students might spend in communication, the movement between CIAs in terms of starting and ending a task and the method of introducing these activities to the EFL students (Goldsmith, 2009). In this study, several L2 classes appeared to work within a fast-paced environment. For example, T4, T7 and T8 allocated a specific time to complete a task, before switching from one task to another. In the other classes where less student interaction was observed, the pace of the tasks seemed slower. This lack of pace in activities appears to support Gettinger and Walter’s (2012) suggestion that the pace of tasks could contribute to the behavioural engagement in the L2 class.

Relevance and appropriateness of the CIAs

The mix of the activities in the three classes where students engaged most demonstrated how the apparently relevant materials appeared to interest the students as they drew on their real-life experiences, such as fast food or action movies. However, in the other eight classes observed, it did not appear that a real-life context was established, although it had to be acknowledged that classes were only observed once. The focus in these 8 classes was solely on the textbook material and did not appear to involve the students’ everyday experiences. It has been argued that the EFL materials of textbooks are usually adopted as the sole source of the materials used in L2 teaching in class (Ansary and Babaii, 2002; De Matos, 2000). Although the textbooks were based on a communicative approach, Abu Ellif and Marrof (2011), who conducted a study on Saudi EFL students who had been learning English for six years, found that the use of the textbook activities scored a very low rating by the EFL learners in terms of task participation. Abu Ellif and Marrof (2011) claim that although the activities in those textbook materials seemed to be well structured, they were deficient in terms of their communicative tasks. The learners of those 8 classes in this present study did not have the same mix of activities as those of the three classes (Class 4, Class 7 and Class 8) discussed above. It could therefore be suggested that a perceived relevance may be an important demotivator regarding engagement. An awareness of the L2 culture could also be an important requirement in learning a particular language; in the following section this will be discussed in further detail.

The TL cultural references

The video materials, together with other different methods (non-verbal practices such as ‘eye contact and body language’) that T4 and T7 used in their classes in their English teaching also introduced the culture of the TL (English) to the learners. Although other English teachers who participated in this study, such as T3, T5, T6 and T9 could be considered as moderately successful in engaging the learners in interaction, they did not use extra materials (e.g. videos or authentic texts) that might introduce a cultural dimension. Three NS English teachers (T3, T5 and T6) had an authentic connection to the TL and culture, but appeared less aware of their Saudi EFL learners’ culture (Kramsch, 2013). Regardless of the fact that they had some experience in teaching English in that particular Saudi context they ‘*preferred to stick to the safe ground and taught grammar and vocabulary*’ (Kramsch, 2013, p. 59), not offering full engagement with English-speaking cultures as T4, T8 and T7 did.

For example, T4 presented a video in his class where the people concerned were in the United States. Although they were mix of NSs (British and American) there were still many things in common. The video took place in public in a pizza restaurant, which also introduced the speakers’ accents, specific to that particular country and area. The restaurant, the internal furniture of the restaurant, the streets, people, and the surroundings of the streets such as buildings, all showed that it was set in a western and English-speaking society.

When T7 used the external material (i.e. action movie) in class the attraction of the learners for the movie used in Class 7 may well have been attributable to its being suitable to their level and age (i.e. 18-21), although aspects of the USA culture, including the geography of the country, as seen by the roads and the context could be seen implicitly. Sybing (2010) proposes that the TL culture could be viewed as a favourable force in the L2 class to increase the students’ motivation, and which can ultimately lessen L2 anxiety. Although the lesson in Class 7 was about structuring sentences, the movie played a significant role at the core of the lesson when the English teacher related all activities to that material.

T4’s and T7’s authentic materials played a complementary and supportive role to the textbook and lesson (Sybing, 2010). Although the focus of T4 and T7 was on the language, by bringing those authentic materials discussed above to the L2 classroom, the TL culture was implicitly embedded for the student. Sole use of textbooks is unlikely to have

conveyed the same information to them. Sybing (2010) found that materials adopted were not the essential cause of the learners' interest but that the CIAs arising from the materials could include authentic aspects of communication. Classes 4 and 7 showed interest in both materials used in class and the CIAs that followed those materials. Sybing (2010, p.3) argues in his survey on introducing the L2 culture in an EFL country that

‘the presence of a separate culture in the classroom remains inevitable, especially but not exclusively where native-speaking teachers (NSTs) differ in cultural perspective from their learners, and requires that awareness of such differences by all in the classroom also be raised’.

Interestingly, the teachers did not explicitly raise any points regarding any cultural reference in the authentic extraneous resources. However, the visual images could be clearly seen as implicitly providing access to information about cultures where English is used as a first language. In addition, the recruitment of the NS English teachers to these institutions enabled the inherent presentation of L2 culture and the linguistic support to the Saudi EFL learners (Carless, 2006). Kramsch (2013) names this the ‘Little c culture’; it involved the NS teachers' manner of speaking, values and beliefs, behaviour and even eating. Even when they did not seem introduce any extraneous materials that could present the TL culture, T4 and T7 the other NS teachers in this study, may have been educating their students about aspects of the TL culture. In the following section, the teachers' approaches to learner errors and learners' language anxiety in the TL class will be addressed and discussed.

7.5 Teachers' corrective feedback and learners' TL use challenges

During the observations, it was noted that most of the Saudi EFL students tended to remain silent and passive in L2 classes, particularly in the low proficiency level classes. They did not appear to like participating in talk in the classroom in the TL. This may have been due to anxiety about making errors. In Class 4, for example, most errors were grammatical. Grammatical and pronunciation errors were also observed in Class 7. In Classes 8 and 9, some spelling errors when the students were writing the sentences on the board were noted. Every English teacher had their own responses regarding the students' errors in class. The purpose of achieving the aim of the communicative approach demands students' interaction and engagement with other learners and teachers in the L2 classroom (Miller, 2016). T4, T7, and T8 in the interviews and also as seen in the classroom observation, seemed to view errors as an evidential phenomenon of the students' ‘linguistic

development', not as mistakes to be averted in communicative situations (Rezaei et al., 2011) and gave a variety of CF moves.

T4 practised 'recasting', for example, when a student who made the grammatical error '*he go to pizza restaurant every day*' T4 replied '*Oh, yes, he goes to a pizza restaurant every day, yes, that is right*'. T4 reformed a simple recasting correction to the EFL learner's speech (Ellis and Sheen, 2006) in the structure of the sentence by adding the first-person singular 's' to the verb 'go'. Although several researchers such as Lyster (2002) criticise recasting correction on the grounds that students might not grasp the role of recasting (Morris and Tarone, 2003), T4 emphasised the first personal singular to highlight the correct form of the sentence. On this occasion, the learner nodded, indicating that he had recognised the correct form.

T7 similarly used recasting as corrective feedback when one of his students pronounced the word 'space' incorrectly. As he was moving from group to group in his TL class, T7 heard a student making an error in a grammar tense (present perfect). T7 used a repetition corrective feedback by 'repeating' the part of the sentence uttered by the student, which was not correct (Rezaei et al., 2011), '*have driven...?*'. The student reformulated the sentence to '*he has driven his car quickly*'. Again, T7 confirmed the adjustment correction made by the student on 'has' but highlighted the mis-formed tense and stressed '*driven...?*' with an intonation drawing attention to the error (Panova & Lyster, 2002). This allowed the learner to correct himself and eventually find the correct irregular past participle 'driven' in his sentence.

T8 also used recasts; however, he also practised elicitation as (Panova & Lyster (2002) suggest, to foster students' involvement in self-correction to reformulate the incorrect articulations (Rezaei et al., 2011). This feedback correction did not appear to have any negative effect on the learners' interaction and engagement.

T9 also used explicit correction with his L2 class by providing a direct indication of the existing error, which could be seen as similar to the TL reformulation (Ellis and Sheen 2006). He informed his students as a whole class of wrong spelling of the words spoken and written in their competitive activity and assisted the students to identify the correct form of the structure of the sentences they were formulating. Teachers should address the value of errors as this can contribute to progress in L2 learning (Moeller and Roberts,

2013). Error correction was not observed in any of the other teachers' classrooms, possibly due to the lack of responses on the part of the students.

As has been noted, monolingual classes, particularly those whose teachers share the same language, can experience difficulties engaging in TL interaction because of the 'false' nature of the communication. The next section discusses the 'persistence' of teachers in the use of the TL in these circumstances.

7.6 Teachers' persistence in the face of EFL learners' resistance

It was stated by almost all of the students and teachers in interview that most of the students had not been used to collaborative learning and interaction using the TL until they reached university level. Collaborative learning and TL interaction in class seemed completely different from what they had been used to in school; therefore, the teachers' duty, as suggested by T4, should be

'persisting and if you do not give up, you can see them that their attitude is changing which I find very challenging as well as interesting because I feel as if I am able to change their attitude to life and learning'.

This persistence in the face of the learners' potential resistance towards what they might see as 'new' L2 learning practices, as T4 suggests, has a potentially positive effect on their contribution in class. He subsequently added that *'I can see the change in them over a period of six weeks. I would call it an achievement, and for me, that is what keeps me going'*.

T4, as was observed in the class visit, did not concede any resistance to using the TL or to engagement in class. Similarly, T5, T6, T7 and T8, who were NS English teachers, showed persistence and obliged their learners to use the TL, engage in the lesson and participate in every task assigned to them. Some of these teachers appeared to be very successful by requesting their learners, if they resorted to Arabic, to *'Speak in English please'*.

However, from the teachers' interviews and as observed in classes, the levels of persistence differed. It is possible that students lacked confidence in their English language performance, which led them to be less responsive and averse to risk-taking. It may also be the case that teachers refrained from putting their learners in challenging situations, because they were concerned about face issues.

The teachers who were most successful in overcoming potential resistance to using the TL were those who appeared to spark their students' interest. However, in some classes the interaction seemed somewhat teacher-centred despite students responding willingly, as the teachers seemed to control the interaction. The high level of interaction may have been a result of the relationship between teacher and learners, which will be discussed further below.

7.7 Relationships within the classroom

With regard to building relationships with the learners, English teachers should be able to diagnose the EFL learners' needs (Zhao, 2009). Some of the teachers (e.g. T4, T7 and T8) in the interviews raised concerns about their EFL students in terms of their proficiency levels, how they had been influenced by their previous school experiences and the need for these learners to be supported in collaborative L2 learning. These concerns were reflected in the teachers' performance in their language classroom, in the way they communicated with their students, and the close relationship they appeared to have with them.

T4 appeared to have a particularly good relationship with his students. At the beginning of the lesson, he showed his concern for one of the students in class, who was absent, asking his students if he was ill, (i.e., How is your colleague doing; did you check on him?), demonstrating his care for his students and sending a message to the learners that they were important to him. It was observed that the lesson included a number of fast-paced active learning activities (e.g., videos, group discussion and peer discussion), the teacher moving from one to another smoothly. The responses of his learners seemed to be positive and every student replied to most of the questions given in class. T4 used humour, employing jokes and funny remarks in class. Ghasemi and Hashemi (2011) report that, as well as competence in teaching, a sense of humour is important. Following the video presentation (Fast Food) he stated 'So, feeling a bit hungry? I am starting to feel so'. This created laughter, clearly showing a positive relationship between the teacher and his learners.

The ethos in T7's class appeared similar to that in T4's. At the very start, he made humorous remarks, talking to the students about mobile phone applications he had downloaded in his phone. He requested suggestions from his learners as to which applications would be most appropriate for his type of phone. This discussion was planned,

was in fact a part of their communicative activities in the lesson. T7 however, had worked to create a friendly environment in class as if they were in an informal setting, chatting with friends, as Al Asmari (2013) and Javid (2011) suggest. Following this, he addressed individual learners in class as well as the whole class. He usually made the thumbs up sign to his students in class when they gave a correct answer in the activities and said '*I like it*' whenever a correct response was given by the EFL learners. The praise that T7 gave his learners also contributed to building a positive relationship with them. The students appeared very comfortable in class. This was apparent from the learners' participation, quick responses and engagement. As observed in class 7, it seemed that T7 had managed to identify the majority of the needs of his learners in the setting of the classroom.

Similarly, discussion that took place between T8 and his learners showed a 'connectedness' and a positive relationship between them. He answered all the questions his students asked in the lesson. He facilitated the communications that were conducted in the group discussion, and allowed the learners to discuss the topic freely. During all of these practices and monitoring in class, he generated some joking remarks as T4 and T7. The ease the students felt was shown by their initiations in interaction and their responses to questions T8 asked.

Regarding the other 8 teachers who participated in this study, it was observed that while they had an appropriate teacher-learner relationship with their learners they did not seem to have acquired the level of positive relationship that T4, T7 and T8 had attained. These teachers' classes therefore tended to be less successful in terms of communicative interaction, the use of the TL and engagement in class, perhaps because students felt the ambience was more formal.

As it appeared from the language classroom observations, it seemed that the English language teachers who showed evidence of L2 teaching competence utilised various practices in generating communicative interaction and engagement in the L2 classrooms in this study. The care of the selection of FL materials which were likely to be suitable and relevant to the EFL students' real-life situations to stimulate their practices on a daily basis (Sybing, 2010), could reflect the teaching competence and success that the three teachers (T4, 7 and 8) in this study demonstrated. Similarly, the potential design or use of CIAs that are authentic, interesting and appropriate to the learners' level in these English lessons may also show the type of teaching that Saudi EFL students need to be offered in order to

support their use of the TL to interact in the language classroom. The techniques of using appropriate corrective feedback by the teachers to learners according to the situations and types of these errors may assist in developing a safe learning environment (Moeller and Roberts, 2013). With the English teachers' awareness of these practices, persistence in class, and a positive relationship with the EFL learners in class (Al Asmari, 2013), all of these factors discussed above can potentially make a 'successful' English teacher who can assist his learners to use the TL in the language classroom in the Saudi context.

The language classroom observations in this investigation revealed the language learning and teaching practices, which took place in class, which may help involve the EFL students in communicative situations. This chapter discussed the observations, which support the responses of the Saudi EFL learners in Chapter Five and the English teachers' comments in Chapter Six regarding language learning and teaching in the L2 classroom in the preparatory year at the university/college level. The aim of the observations, which were carried out was to confirm or contradict the data gathered from the interviews with both groups of respondents, i.e. students and teachers.

The reality of what was observed revealed some contradictions to, as well as some similarities with, the claims of the respondents. For example, some EFL students such as S11, S31 and S33, claimed that they preferred to use the TL in the classroom, and to communicate and engage in interactive situations with their teachers and fellow students. However, this was not what was observed in the class; on the contrary, they were seen to remain passive. Nevertheless, this could be attributed to certain circumstances, such as the low proficiency level of students or the presence of the observer. Similarly, those same students, as well as some others, suggested that they preferred their teacher to correct them if they made errors in their spoken tasks; however, this was in contrast to what was observed. Because they all remained silent and passive, there were no errors evident to correct. Other contradictions were evident where teachers, for example, T2 suggested that students used the TL in their peer and group discussions, albeit with errors. However, observation showed them to be passive, not participating in communicative activities.

On the other hand, the numerous similarities in the interviews conducted with the respondents indicated considerable correspondence between the responses and the phenomena observed in the L2 class. These involved the competence of English language teachers, effective language teaching at the university/college level and L2 teaching

approaches and methods used in the classrooms. There were other similarities from the observations reported in this chapter with the findings in Chapters 5 and 6 in terms of the proficiency level of students and engagement in class and how CIAs may stimulate and encourage their participation in activities. Different, alternative types and varieties of CIAs and materials used in the L2 classroom and their relevance were also observed in four classes. The errors that the EFL students made and their challenges in classes, teachers' persistence, connectedness and positive relationships with the students, corresponded very closely to the perspectives of the respondents in the interviews.

7.8 Conclusion

This chapter addressed the classroom observations that explored the use of communicative approaches, activities and practices used in the L2 classroom. It endorsed the interview responses of the students and teachers on most points and contradicted some regarding aspects of L2 learning and teaching in communicative interaction settings in the language classroom.

The chapter touched on the English teachers' efforts to engage the students in class. It presented the strategies, techniques and activities that appeared to encourage the students to interact and how the teachers worked to situate them in communicative settings. It also discussed three categories of English teachers in the L2 classroom. Success was examined and investigated in terms of teachers' obtaining learners' engagement in the classes, which comprised advanced, moderate and less interactive classes. It addressed the origins (NS, NNS Arab and NNS non-Arab) of the English teachers and possible relationships between the engagement and interaction of the students in terms of the teachers' origins.

Chapter 7 also discussed the variety of L2 teaching approaches and methods practised in the classes investigated, and the post-method teaching approach that elicited communication and discussion. It then moved on to address the types of CIA (games, peer discussion and presentations) and how interaction and engagement supported the EFL students' use of the TL. Furthermore, the pace and relevance of these materials and activities could potentially contribute to students' involvement in the lesson. The TL cultural dimensions that might be introduced through the TL materials such as videos, which appeared authentic and interesting to the students in their classes, were implied.

The challenges and errors that the EFL students encountered when using the TL in their classes were also discussed in this chapter. Four teachers in this research spoke of several types of corrective feedback that appeared to support their students in speaking situations; such feedback seemed to develop the students' TL, as was obvious from their reaction. This showed, as argued in this chapter, that the teachers' persistence and the relationship of the teachers with their EFL students could support the L2 learning and teaching processes.

The following chapter, Chapter 8, will draw together the findings discussed in Chapters 5, 6 and 7 and present the conclusion to the thesis on English language teaching and learning in communicative interaction situations through use of the TL. It will also make the recommendations both for practice and for future research.

Chapter Eight: Conclusion

8.1 Introduction

This research aimed to explore the main approaches to teaching English in the language classroom in the preparatory year at university/college level in the Western province in Saudi Arabia and teachers' and students' perceptions of what was effective in developing students' use of the TL in communicative interaction. As the research unfolded, it gathered the views of students and their teachers and identified aspects of the communicative language approaches and CIAs in the language classroom which students, teachers and the observations identified as supportive to students' development of their communicative skills.

In view of the lack of communicative, active and collaborative learning which could support the use of the TL in the L2 class at the school stage, and the application of these at the university/college level, I was keen to explore these phenomena at the university level to view whether the outcomes were potentially positive. The rationale behind this is that EFL students in Arab countries, particularly in the KSA, have a positive attitude towards the L2 learning and teaching at the university/college level (Malallah, 2000) due to the high standard of teaching at this stage (Suleiman, 1983). This related to the aim of this research, in which one of the focuses was on the exploration of the use of teaching approaches in English language teaching classes in universities and colleges in Saudi Arabia and the identification of positive, negative and challenging aspects that may be encountered in the language classroom, and which could support or hinder the development of speaking skills.

The willingness of the students in this study to contribute to the collaborative learning processes in the lessons, which were generated by most of the English teachers appeared to be affected by several factors, which had been observed when I undertook the classroom observations before conducting the interviews. In some classes, as the teachers and students in the L2 classroom communicated and shared information through the spoken L2, the TL used gained not only a pedagogical but social function (Kaşlioğlu, 2003). The collaborative learning atmosphere in those classes and the employment of different types of CIAs seemed to offer the opportunity to develop the students' spoken communicative

skills, as perceived by the respondents in this study, with consideration of some circumstances.

The findings in this investigation from the both learners' and teachers' interviews and the classroom observations conducted, answered the research questions of this study highlighted below that explored the principal approaches to teaching and learning in universities and colleges in Saudi Arabia. These interviews also explored the perceptions of students and teachers towards these approaches to English language teaching as a support to learning English, particularly the development of the use of the TL. The observed practices of the EFL learning and teaching in the classrooms were further interpreted in terms of whether they supported or inhibited the students in practising communicative interaction activities using English.

- What are the main approaches to teaching and learning in universities and colleges in Saudi Arabia?
- How do students and teachers perceive these approaches to English language teaching in supporting English learning, particularly development of the use of the TL?
- Which practices of the EFL learning and teaching in the classrooms appear to support or inhibit the students in practising communicative interaction activities using English?

The research questions above were developed to explore various features in the field of TESOL in Saudi Arabia. The first question addressed the types of approaches, teaching strategies and resources that university/college English teachers applied to develop the use of the TL in class and how these approaches might potentially contribute to the enhancement of the students' spoken skills and understanding. The second question dealt with the perceptions of the respondents, i.e. students and teachers, regarding these approaches in the three institutions investigated; what they believe about using the TL and how they viewed the possible approaches aimed at involving students in communicative interactive settings. Concerning the third question of this research, it explored and identified particular English language learning and teaching strategies and practices, which might develop students' communicative competence.

It also focused on the learners' and teachers' use of the TL in the classroom and investigated whether communicative interaction through the use of recently-developed teaching methods in the language classroom of the context, that is, CLT and TBL, or the post-method teaching approach, can assist in achieving the development of learners' communicative skills in formal and informal talk. In addition, it investigated the classroom phenomena that might support the creation of collaborative communication and discussion or constrain them, for example, language anxiety, self-confidence and motivation, and the teachers' actions and responses regarding them.

The context and the background of this study were illustrated in Chapter Two, which provides a full description of English language learning and teaching in Saudi Arabia since its emergence until this present time. The review of the theoretical and empirical literature related to this research was presented in Chapter Three, which explained the theories in the field of L2 learning and teaching and results of empirical studies, which could be said to be associated with the research questions. The methodology applied in this study was explained in Chapter Four. Chapters Five, Six, and Seven presented and discussed the results of the data analysis in this research. In this concluding chapter, the findings of this study discussed in the last three chapters will be synthesised with a view to generating answers to the research questions, with a particular focus on teacher strategies that may involve the students in communicative interactive settings using the TL in the classroom. Recommendations for further studies and how the study might contribute to the development of English language teaching policy in the Saudi context will also be presented in this chapter.

The responses of the majority of the 55 Saudi EFL students who contributed to this study indicated their awareness of the pedagogical issues regarding L2 learning and teaching in the KSA, probably due to their long period of L2 learning. They openly identified themes of English language learning and teaching that are related to the research questions, providing a student's view of the methods used in schools and Higher Education. Almost all of them said they sought what they termed new, up-to-date L2 teaching approaches and methods that would involve them in communicative interaction settings that would support them to produce the TL without challenges, although they had had little experience of these settings in their previous L2 learning in school.

The rationale behind their responses appeared to be the belief that opportunities for communicative interaction in class would address issues and challenges such as passiveness, using their L1, spoken errors and language anxiety, as mentioned above. They wished to overcome these issues through being taught and guided by experienced and ‘successful’ English teachers, either NS or NNS Arab and non-Arab, who could support them in achieving those aims. However, during the observations, not all students who had expressed a preference for interactive communication activities actually took any part in responding using the TL during the lesson. This may have been due to the issues they had mentioned above and also another issue they identified, the importance of saving face and presenting a self-possessed demeanour. It may be that those students preferred to remain passive, not taking part in any communicative interaction, rather than take part, make mistakes and lose face.

The comments and practices of the 11 English teachers on their L2 teaching in the classrooms observed, also provided answers to the research questions and reflected the teachers’ experience, competence, knowledge and familiarity with the nature of the English language classroom in the Saudi context. Although most of the 11 teachers expressed approval of communicative approaches to teaching English, they also described a number of barriers to their implementation with Saudi students. In the observations seven appeared to actually practise what they had described as desirable and of the seven, only three appeared to operate a fully interactive, learner-centred classroom, where learners engaged in communicative activities in situations through the use of carefully planned CIAs which appeared to involve the students and stimulate them to respond. This involvement will be discussed further below.

8.2 Involvement in the TL communicative interaction classrooms

On the arrival of the EFL students to university/college level, they stated that they had hoped to experience collaborative and active learning that included communicative interaction through CIAs in order to prepare them for future careers where English was seen as a vital skill. The pedagogical function in the L2 classroom, as Kaşlioğlu (2003) argued, is related to language teaching beliefs, and is interdependent with the assurance of communicative capability that is recognised as the communicative approach. The combination of authentic practices related to real-life L2 use, contextualising language, communicative performance and focus on appropriate grammatical forms may engage the

EFL students in being creative about language use rather than just focusing on memorising vocabulary and grammar paradigms. In this research, students and teachers explained that communicative approaches and interactive activities were used in their L2 classes. Although the students did not state this directly, using the terminology, they referred to communicative situations generated in class. The teachers in this investigation also stated that they were careful in selecting suitable approaches such as CLT and TBL to fulfill the students' needs for communicative and interactive involvement for the purpose of extending the TL discourse in class. Although some teachers appeared familiar with the methodological terms, others described their approach less technically.

The high standard of the university/college stage in regard to L2 teaching, as highlighted by students and teachers and also noted in the observations in this study, indicated a lively ethos in many classes and what might be considered effective language teaching in terms of L2 teaching approaches. This included an adequate number of CIAs such as game-based activities, role-plays and simulation, as found by other researchers (Al Asmari, 2013; Javied et al., 2012), and use of teaching and learning resources outside the textbook materials, such as videos which appeared to arouse the learners' interest and motivation to take part in the lesson.

The activities and materials from the textbook could possibly be considered as the 'lowest type' of interactive stimulus, as they scored the lowest rating from the students with regard to stimulating participation. This echoes the finding of Abu Ellif and Maarof (2011) in their study. It may be that the students saw little difference between what they had been used to in English lessons in school where the textbook is used exclusively, and therefore a need for change so that they may be offered the chance to take part in CIAs like those highlighted above. From the observations, the relevance and pace of the materials and tasks which did not depend on the textbook were also significant factors in participation of students as they appeared authentic, simulating the learners' real-life daily interests. They also were used to provide diversity and a richness of activities, particularly communicative tasks. This may have prompted NFM among students and their teachers, which encouraged the use of the TL in the language classroom, as students seemed keen to express their own meanings. CIAs and the materials used in class might also contribute to introducing aspects of the TL culture to the EFL classroom in the Saudi context, which can be a favourable mechanism to increase the students' motivation in class. The students in this investigation were positive regarding involvement and engagement in CIAs and use of the

TL, although it was clear that most of them had experienced a shock in the transition from the school stage to the university level and some, although appreciating the theory of communicative interaction in the classroom, did not actually engage in it in practice.

The findings in this study showed that L2 learning was thought by the participants to encompass interactive processes among EFL students and their teachers and take into account that the teachers' use of the TL in class could, like the CIAs, be a part of the sources of the TL input. Therefore, it is probably helpful for teachers to make extensive use of the TL, adding CIAs that may encourage learners to discuss and communicate with others in class (Littlewood and Yu, 2011). Furthermore, CIAs needed to be suitable, relevant to students and a certain time for practice needs to be allotted. The selection of approaches and activities that the teachers indicated, however, might be affected by several negative factors that the teachers said they had encountered, such as the resistance of students to speak and a feeling of being compelled by these students to use the L1 in teaching.

The full use of the TL in class by the teacher can lead to increased teacher-time talk and a teacher-centred approach, which may divert students from the learner-centred learning processes that are recommended in the EFL class. Froyd and Simpson (2008) point out that carefully considered transitions to student-centered learning approaches are likely to result in the most enduring changes in teaching. University/college English teachers might have to consider several collaborative learning strategies, such as idea sharing and collaborative discussion with colleagues when planning to establish a learner-centred setting in the L2 class.

The findings from the observations also showed that engagement in communicative and interactive situations tended to be associated with the students' proficiency level; as these levels varied, this could affect learners' levels of interaction from advanced to low interaction and engagement accordingly. The proficiency level of students and practices of the TL will be discussed below.

8.3 Students' proficiency level and the classroom TL practices

Students' proficiency level can possibly play a significant role in using the TL and participating in the CIAs. Sato et al. (2008) point out that EFL students who are at a high

proficiency level in English are more disposed to possess self-esteem and be stimulated than those who are at a lower proficiency level, and that this supports them to engage in discussing and communicating in the TL. Although many of the students placed in the lower levels engaged in the interaction activities that the teachers provided and stated that they found them helpful, this study found that some students situated in lower proficiency levels appeared reluctant to engage and interact in the CIAs using the TL, a factor which teachers, students and the observations all provided evidence of. Their proficiency level, aligned with the Saudi imperative to save face, could lead to barriers to students using the TL and participating in CIAs. Trying to force students to participate, could cause other challenges, as will be argued below.

8.4 Barriers in L2 classrooms to using the TL in communicative approaches

As communicative approaches and their various types of activities can generate interaction and active participation among EFL students in class, they might similarly create errors, nervousness and uncomfortable situations that preclude the use of the TL in class with the result that students ‘dry up’ and refuse to engage. These hurdles usually often exist in the EFL classroom, as communicative approaches with classes require interaction, discussions and active participation between the students and the teachers. Communicating in the L2 classroom can be viewed to be a source of risk-taking, which is also a fundamental process to acquire the TL (Moeller and Roberts, 2013). However, although errors can help L2 learning, they can also be a cause of embarrassment, apprehension and anxiety, leading to students’ reluctance to participate. In the Saudi context, where making mistakes is seen as undesirable and fear of ‘looking stupid’ or less knowledgeable is an important factor in the students’ national character, they can be a major issue for students, particularly if their proficiency level is poor or minimal. It appeared obvious that EFL students might hesitate to participate due to their awareness of their weaknesses and errors they might make when speaking in the TL in class.

The types of errors that these students and their teachers were frequently concerned about comprised phonological, syntactical and lexical errors, although only the students and T4 mentioned these. The phonological issues included pronunciation and sounds when speaking English. The students also highlighted another issue, involving syntactic errors, including grammar. This problematic issue concerns word order and sentence structure and

tenses, which is very different to Arabic and therefore a source of concern. In addition lexical choice error was another obstacle, which confused some students regarding using the proper vocabulary with its correct meaning. All of these errors could relate to students' L1 influence and interference. The teachers' responsibility is to provide their students with the correct form of speech and provide them with suitable corrective feedback (Lightbown and Spada, 2013), so it might be argued that it is important that the teachers make the effort to use the TL as much as possible in order to provide a good model of English for the students.

In this study several types of CF were observed that could be supportive in developing students' communication in the TL. Most of CF types that Lyster and Ranta (1997) classify, such as recasting, repetition, elicitation and explicit corrective feedbacks, were noted. It is important to note that the teachers most successful in engaging the students in L2 interaction treated error correction sensitively, encouraging them to reflect and come up with the correct response themselves, rather than explicitly providing them with the correct answer.

Language anxiety is another barrier that often inhibits EFL learners from getting involved in communicative interaction in class. Although it might be difficult to measure language anxiety in the classroom, and would demand a long-term research project to reveal this, the EFL students in this study spoke of this negative phenomenon in their L2 learning particularly when referring to speaking the TL. The types of L2 anxiety that this study highlighted revolved around communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, embarrassment in front of peers and a type not identified before, which is nervousness about a new topic.

The connectedness and positive relationship observed between the most effective teachers and their students appeared to reduce this anxiety and possibly contribute to saving students' face, increasing their confidence, involving them in interaction and prompting them to discuss and participate in CIAs and a learner-centred situation. This also demonstrated the teachers' persistence, and intuitiveness, indicating that the teachers were aware of their students' needs and what to do to address them (Goldsmith, 2009).

8.5 Recommendations and implications for further studies and implications for education policy makers

As the aim of this study was to explore the approaches taken by teachers in the Saudi university and college context, focusing particularly on the development of students' spoken language, it could be assumed that these communicative approaches mentioned in the findings chapters could reinforce language learning in the EFL classroom. Proceeding through this study, it was evident that the EFL students at the university/college level were given more space and opportunities to collaborate, interact, negotiate in peer and group work and were encouraged to speak the TL more than they had been at the school stage. This reflected the university English teachers' facilitation of the L2 learning in the FL classroom. Nonetheless, despite these communicative, collaborative and interactive settings, designed to maximise the use of the TL, many students still faced particular challenges and obstacles in actually using English to communicate. These challenges varied according to the student perceptions of teachers' competence, their origins (e.g. NS or NNS teachers) and practices, their use of stimulating CIAs and materials, the proficiency level of the EFL students and some other personal factors that might impact the L2 learning process.

In accordance with the findings, it was clear that the EFL students were usually enthusiastic about being involved in CIAs and enjoyed engaging in speaking the TL through interactions in a learner-centred approach, in spite of the challenges they faced. In view of the findings of this study, it is proposed that the language used predominantly in the EFL classroom in the Saudi Higher Education context, as the results in this investigation imply, is the TL. Creative and sensitive TL use by the teacher can promote communicative competence on the part of the students. However, many students said they valued the use of the L1 to explain concepts and grammar functions and while endorsing extensive TL use, it is accepted that translanguaging may be supportive to those students who need reassurance and some extra support (Baker, 2001).

The findings that this research revealed that, as the English language becomes more important in Saudi Arabia and to Saudis, the school stage and its perceived inadequacies in terms of L2 learning and teaching also need to be taken into consideration; thus, more language teaching development is required. This particular stage could be considered the foundation for L2 learning and could provide a useful basis to build on when students

progress to the university/college level. The introduction of English teaching at a very early stage (e.g. at 6 years old) might be a helpful development in ensuring success in learning the English language (Elyas and Al Grigri, 2014), as would more systematic use of the TL by the teachers. However, these suggestions can only be effectively put into practice if the teaching staff in schools are confident and competent to deliver more creative and engaging lessons. It is therefore recommended that primary and secondary school teachers be encouraged to undertake professional development courses aimed at enhancing their English competence and language teaching pedagogy in the L2.

In accordance with the findings of Al-Nofaie, (2010), the findings of this study suggest that most English teachers at the school stage would benefit from English language teaching training development programmes that explain various teaching strategies, particularly communicative approaches. These programmes could also be organised at the university level, although they might be more advanced, as professional development that includes research, seminars and symposiums could be considered a necessity for teachers in Higher Education to be informed about theory and empirical research. It was interesting that the teachers more successful in creating interactive discussion in their classrooms, did so intuitively, without actually being aware that there was a great deal of theory underpinning their actions.

As the students' progress and transfer from the school stage to the preparatory year of the university level, the findings showed that this transition caused a L2 learning shock in the students due to different, more advanced teaching strategies being used in the Higher Education context. The English teachers were aware of their responsibility to these students to create a comfortable L2 learning environment to ease this shock. Some of them did this by using similar teaching approaches and methods to those used in their previous L2 learning stage at school, that is, the GTM with the aim of gradually introducing more communicative teaching approaches. While this worked for some teachers, others found themselves in a situation where students emphatically refused to move from the security of traditional methods, even as they stated that they needed practice in communication and understood the value of interactive activities. It may be that further work needs to be undertaken to address students' language anxiety and fear of loss of face.

Use of English as the medium of instruction at the university/college level in most subjects in their different disciplines is limited, as one third of courses (e.g. Social Studies, Arts and

Management) are taught in Arabic, particularly in Arts and Education faculties (Rbab'ah, 2005). If these courses were taught in English, students would undoubtedly develop their communicative competence and perhaps make more effort to engage with the language in the orientation year.

This investigation has provided evidence of the use of various L2 teaching approaches in the orientation year of the university/college level that might well result in the development of communicative competence mentioned above. Creating a balance between the use of these interactive L2 teaching approaches and methods (e.g. CLT and TBL), as well as focusing on grammar as necessary, can generate a positive climate in the L2 classroom (Glomo-Narzoles, 2013), reflecting the post-method teaching era (Galante, 2014; Fat'hi et al., 2015). Activities could include collaborative learning that involves CIAs and materials that support EFL students to learn and use the English language. This L2 post-method teaching approach could meet the needs of the EFL students in the L2 learning processes and result in beneficial engagement among students (Galante, 2014).

There are perceived limitations imposed on English teachers by their educational managements, which could constrain their use of innovative L2 teaching practices and approaches such as those discussed above. As this research identified, the selection of textbook, length of lessons, completion of the syllabus, exam preparation, class size were all viewed as influencing the perceived autonomy of teachers in selecting appropriate teaching approaches, activities and resources in the L2 classroom which creates a tension between teaching for communication and teaching for exam preparation. It is important that English teachers at the university/college level feel confident in being more autonomous in their choice of resources and methodology, as this could facilitate the L2 learning processes by supporting students to develop confidence through relevant functional training development in class, which will have a resulting effect on their engagement and therefore their performance in examinations. This was clearly seen in the classes where teachers had adopted this approach.

The employment of these activities such as role-plays, game-based, presentations, negotiation for meaning and group and peer work activities in the language classroom can possibly develop the learners' stimulation and perception of L2 learning engagement (Blatchford et al., 2003). These activities can also be linked to the development of cognition, as Blatchford et al. claim. The findings of this research are aligned with those of

Blatchford et al. (2003), and suggest that CIAs facilitate practices that result in fluency in the FL. The reason is that the students' goal is to formulate an understandable verbal discussion and CIAs can support them to do so. The purpose of communicative learning and teaching is to prepare the EFL students to become autonomous and to extend their use of the TL so that they are well-equipped to use it confidently outside the classroom. The students' satisfaction with the interactive approaches some teachers took in their classes, as observed in this research, made them participate and interact actively in the L2 classes in which these were used.

On the contrary, the textbook activities did not appear to generate involvement and interaction in the L2, as appeared from this research, as relevant and appropriate practice for using the language in daily basis practices were not evident. Although the current textbook materials are in line with the communicative approaches and their activities, they still need modification and there is a need for tasks that can simulate the students' real-life and everyday experiences. Alternatively, this can be done by designing, either at the university/college level or indeed at the school stage, supplementary materials that include relevant and appropriate CIAs with source materials that can engage the EFL learners and encourage them to take part in interactive situations. This could help them to use the TL meaningfully and possibly contribute to reducing the language anxiety that the students might experience when they are involved in discussion in the language classroom, as the students in this investigation suggested.

The importance of the extensive use of the TL in the language classroom cannot be denied, when it provides students with comprehensible input. This can help the learners' gaining language which will support them to express their points of view, ask and answer questions, and share in discussion in the TL (Moeller and Roberts, 2013). Translanguaging can also occur in the L2 classroom; therefore, it is essential to be familiar with the amount and purpose of L1 used (Macaro, 2001). It is crucial to situate translanguaging as part of the process to allow EFL students to move from one language to another in order to achieve the purpose of communication in the L2 class (Anderson et al., 2017), and to elicit interaction so that bilingualism might be used to convey ideas and messages (Blackledge and Creese, 2010). This can comprise creativity, that is, adhering to or deviating from norms of language use, as well as criticality, that is, the use of evidence to question or express opinions (Li, 2011). However, the most significant element in the L2 learning process in the language classroom could thus be said to be the quality of exposure to the

TL, rather than the quantity (Dickson, 1992). English language teachers should bear in mind that translanguaging in the L2 classroom is a supporting tool to structure the methods of communication, and to offer the EFL students with oral mechanisms to perform efficiently in the TL.

As noted earlier, the aim of the English language learning and teaching in the Saudi context is to achieve optimum communicative skills development among the EFL learners. In order to achieve these objectives, it is important to evaluate the outcomes of English language departments at universities that qualify undergraduate students to teach English. The curricula of these English language departments at Saudi universities usually involve literature and linguistic courses (Javid et al., 2012), and there appears to be a corresponding lack of intensive pedagogical and L2 teaching courses. It could be beneficial and supportive if these pedagogical courses were assigned to be taught in parallel to the literature and linguistic courses in order to contribute to refining the contribution to the development of the English language communicative teaching in the Saudi context by English teachers graduating from these departments.

This study investigated the English language teaching and learning approaches in the orientation year of the university/college level in Saudi Arabia, and has revealed a number of language learning and teaching aspects and phenomena that take place in the L2 classroom. English language teachers at the university/college level and the school stage in the Saudi context, particularly those at the university level, will be encouraged to share in the findings of the study. It is hoped that teachers in Saudi Arabia benefit from these findings in terms of understanding how communicative approaches and CIAs potentially contribute in the development of the speaking skills of the EFL students in the TL. However, they also need to understand how to use these approaches effectively. It was clear from the interviews that most of the teachers appreciated the benefits of communicative language teaching and learning. In the observations, however, not all the teachers seemed able to put this into practice. It is therefore advisable that planned systematic professional development courses are set in place, perhaps using video footage of the more successful teachers, so that teachers may be educated in how to use CLT effectively. Sharing information and discussion about how to set up and operate a communicative classroom would also be beneficial for the teachers, as they may increase their knowledge and skills through collaboration with colleagues, both within and outwith their institutions.

The introduction of in-service courses to develop effective pedagogy implicates education policy makers, who could also utilise the findings from this research as a basis for further research with a view to making decisions regarding designing ELT curricula and appropriate resources in both levels (i.e. university level and school stage) that include collaborative and communicative learning through using CIAs to develop the use of the TL. The findings of this study will also be shared in academia, through publications and conference presentations.

Although the complexities of the L2 classroom are introduced in the context of the study, more research should be carried out based on the findings up to this point. All the findings and themes of this research could contribute to further future studies and potentially, to the development of English language teaching policy in the Saudi context at the MOE. It is suggested that future researchers carry out a study similar to this present one, but focusing on CLT at the school level rather than in higher education. In addition, it is suggested that future research could be conducted to investigate the issues involved in the transition between school and university English language learning. This topic is under-researched but is nonetheless an important one as it affects a high number of higher education students.

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Appendix A1

The Students interviews:



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CONSENT TO THE USE OF DATA Learners

University of Glasgow, College of Social Science Research Ethics Committee

Title of Project: *The potential effect of the use of the target language (TL) in learning and teaching English in the language classroom at university level in the Saudi Context.*

I understand that _____

is collecting the data in the form of

I give my consent to the use of data for this purpose on the understanding that:

- I affirm that I read and understand the plain language statement provided by the researchers for the above research.
- I understand that my contribution in this study is voluntary and I am free to withdraw at any time without giving reasons and without any consequences.
- All names and other material likely to identify individuals will be anonymised.
- I accept the place and use of audio recording in the interview.
- The material will be treated as confidential and kept in secure storage at all times.
- The material will be deleted within 10 years after the completion of the project (no later than 2026).
- The material may be used in future publications, both print and online.

Signed by the contributor _____ Date:

Signed on behalf of the contributor (i.e. parent/guardian in case of a person under 18)

_____ Date:

Contact Details:

Researcher's name and email contact: Mohammed Alharbi.

Email: lamarimod@hotmail.com , m.alharbi.2@research.gla.ac.uk

Supervisor name and email contact : Hazel Crichton. Email: hazel.crichton@glasgow.ac.uk

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University of Glasgow, School of Education, St. Andrews Building, 11 Eldon Street, Glasgow,
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Appendix A2

Learners' plain Language Statement (Interviews)



University of Glasgow | College of Social Sciences

Plain Language Statement (Learners)

1. The study details

a- Title of the study

The potential effect of the use of the target language (TL) in learning and teaching English in the language classroom at university level in the Saudi Context.

b- Researcher's details

Mohamed AlHarbi, University of Glasgow, College of Social Science, School of Education, St. Andrews Building, Room 682

Email: m.alharbi.2@research.gla.ac.uk

c- Supervisor's details

1- Dr Hazel Crichton, University of Glasgow,
hazel.Crichton@glasgow.ac.uk

2- Dr Fiona Patrick, University of Glasgow,
Fiona.Patrick@glasgow.ac.uk

d- Degree being sought

Degree of Doctor of philosophy

2. Invitation to participate in the study

You are being invited to take part in a research study that I am undertaking. Before you choose, if you can kindly take part, it is important for you to know why the research is being conducted and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Ask me if there is anything that is unclear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part in this study.

Thank you for taking time reading this.

3. What is the purpose of the study?

The study aims to explore the use of the communicative approaches in English teaching classes in the Saudi Arabian university/college contexts in to achieve the use of the TL. The research aims to gain the students' perceptions of a communicative interaction in English language learning and teaching, with an emphasis on developing a specific skill, i.e. speaking. The research will also give emphasis on the favourable, unfavourable and challenges aspects that may occur in the language classroom, which may support or inhibit the development of speaking skills. These language teaching and learning aspects investigated include English language errors while speaking and their corrective feedback, language anxiety, self-confidence and motivational interactive activities and the materials used for that purpose.

4. Why have I been chosen?

You have been chosen because you are a student, studying English in the orientation year at a Saudi Arabian university. Your participation is therefore very valuable due to your experience learning English. Your perceptions of the way that you are taught English and supported to develop your speaking skills will be very helpful in identifying strategies which help develop or not English communication skills.

5. Do I have to take part?

Taking part in the study is entirely voluntary. If you decide to take part and later on you no longer want to continue participating, you are still free to withdraw without giving reasons and without any consequences.

6. What will happen to me if I take part?

The project will involve English language learners being interviewed to express their perceptions about the teaching and learning practices in the language classroom after the conduct of a previous classroom observation. This individual interview will not take longer than 20 minutes with you (learner). The interview will be audio recorded with your consent for the purpose of interpreting learners' responses (i.e. researcher use).

7. Will my taking part in this study be kept confidential?

All information collected about you during the study will be kept confidential. You will be identified by a student (e.g. coding students as S1, S2), and using ID numbers if possible. Any information about you will have your name and address removed so that you cannot be recognized from it. Your name will be anonymously protected and confidential. Finally, data will be retained as outlined by the University of Glasgow guidelines that all materials used are kept safely (e.g. audio recording in interviews) and will be transcribed and used if required and stored. This data material will be secured on a computer, hard-drive,

accessible only through the researcher and supervisor with a password, which will be changed often and then, at the end of the project destroyed by shredding. Please be advised that in future presentations or publications, all names of participants will not be identified.

8. What will happen to the results of the research study?

The results will be used in the PhD thesis. Any recommendations as a result of the study will be put to the education authorities, and maybe inform future actions

9. Who is organising and funding the research? (If relevant)

There is no party organising and funding the research.

10. Who has reviewed the study?

The study has been reviewed by the University of Glasgow, College of Social Sciences Ethics Committee.

11. Contact for Further Information

- a) Mohammed AlHarbi. University of Glasgow, School of Education. St Andrews Building, 11 Eldon Street , Glasgow. G3 6NH.

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- b) Dr. Hazel Crichton, University of Glasgow, School of Education, St. Andrews Building, 11 Eldon Street, Glasgow, G3 6NH

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- d) Dr. Muir Houston, University of Glasgow, Ethhics Officer, the College of Social Sciences. The University of Glasgow.

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Appendix A3

Learners Interview questions



University of Glasgow | College of Social Sciences

Learners' Interview Questions

University/ College:

English Level:

Age:

Other English Learning courses:

Period of learning English:

These are the general questions that are going to be asked, but will remain alert to any issues that the teachers/learners bring up that may be relevant to the study and explore them as appropriate.

- 1- What is your perception about the importance of the English Language in Saudi Arabia?

ما هو انطباعك حيال أهمية اللغة الانجليزية في المملكة العربية السعودية؟

- 2- How do you find English language teaching and learning in the Saudi context?

كيف تجد تدريس وتعلم اللغة الانجليزية في البيئة السعودية؟

- 3- Do you prefer to learn languages other than your mother tongue (e.g. English)? Why?

هل تفضل تعلم لغات اخرى غير لغتك الام. مثال (اللغة الانجليزية)؟. ولماذا؟

- 4- Are you satisfied regarding your level in English at this stage? Give reasons.

هل انت راضي عن مستواك في اللغة الانجليزية في هذه المرحلة؟ ممكن ذكر الاسباب.

5- How did English learning and teaching in previous degrees contribute in enriching your knowledge about the English language? If not, why.

كيف ساهم تعلم وتدريس اللغة الانجليزية في المراحل الدراسية السابقة في إثراء معرفتك باللغة الانجليزية؟ واذ لم تساهم لماذا؟

6- Do you think that English teaching methods practiced in schools or at this stage (university level) in the Saudi context may be supportive in learning English? Why?

هل تظن ان طرق تدريس اللغة الانجليزية المطبقة في المدارس او في المرحلة الحالية (الجامعية) في البيئة السعودية مساعدة على تعلم اللغة الانجليزية؟ ولماذا؟

7- Do you prefer to be more involved in active learning (e.g. group work and discussion, negotiation and role plays) and more communicative interaction in the language classroom or to be silent and receive knowledge? Give reasons.

هل تفضل ان يكون لك مشاركة في التمارين التفاعلية مثل النقاش الجماعي في القاعة الدراسية , الحوار , والتمثيل ليكون هناك اتصال وحوار تفاعلي في محاضرة اللغة الانجليزية او تفضل السكوت وتستقبل المعلومة فقط؟ ما هي الاسباب؟

8- Do you prefer to use the target language (TL) for instance, English in the classroom or use your native language to communicate with your teacher and your colleagues? Why?

هل تفضل استخدام اللغة المستهدفة كمثال اللغة الانجليزية في القاعة الدراسية او تستخدم لغتك الاصليه وهي العربية للحوار مع الاستاذ زملائك في القاعة الدراسية؟. لماذا؟

9- Do you choose to be taught by an English native speaker (NS) teacher or an English non-native speaker (NNS) teacher (e.g. Arabic English teacher)? Why?

هل تختار ان يكون استاذ اللغة الانجليزية من اهل اللغة الانجليزية لا يتحدث العربية او ان يكون عربيا يدرس اللغة الانجليزية؟. لماذا ؟

10- How do you feel if he (English teacher) is a NNS but not Arabic as well (e.g. Indian). Why?

ما هو موقفك أو انطباعك لو كان استاذ اللغة الانجليزية ليس من اهل اللغة الانجليزية ولا من اهل اللغة العربية والتي تعتبر لغتك الام. مثال: استاذ لغه انجليزيه هندي الجنسية او باكستاني.

11- What do you feel when you start a spoken communication activity in the TL in the language classroom? Why?

ما هو شعورك عندما تبدأ تمرين حوارى او كلامى باللغة المستهدفة (اللغة الانجليزية) في القاعة الدراسية؟ لماذا؟ .

12- What could communicative interaction activities mentioned above do if it is applied and practised in the language classroom, and would they make you to speak and use the TL in class? Why?

ماذ يمكن ان تفعل لك تمارين الحوار التفاعلي المذكورة سابقا في السؤال السابع اذا طبقت واستخدمت في محاضرة اللغة الانجليزية، وهل يمكن ان تساعدك ان تتحدث اللغة المستهدفة (اللغة الانجليزية) في القاعة الدراسية؟ . لماذا ؟

13- What are the serious issues that may occur when using English in the classroom, and do you like the teacher to assist you, can you give reasons and examples please.

ماهي الاشكاليات التي ممكن ان تحصل عند استخدامك اللغة الانجليزية في القاعة الدراسية وهل تفضل ان يساعدك الاستاذ او لا؟ . اذكر الاسباب

14- Can you describe a 'typical' English lesson? How does it start? What are the main activities? How does it finish?

كيف تصف نموذج درس اللغة الانجليزية؟ كيف يبدأ . ماهي التمارين الاساسية . كيف ينتهي الدرس .

• Do you have anything about English teaching and learning that has not been covered in the interview?

هل لديك ما تضيفه حيال تدريس اللغة الانجليزية وتعلمها لم يتطرق لها او تذكر في هذه المقابلة؟

Thank you for your contribution

شكرا لك للمشاركة,,,,,

Appendix B1

Teachers' Consent form:



University of Glasgow | College of Social Sciences

CONSENT TO THE USE OF DATA (Teachers)

University of Glasgow, College of Social Science Research Ethics Committee

Title of Project: *The potential effect of the use of the target language (TL) in learning and teaching English in the language classroom at university level in the Saudi Context.*

I understand that _____

is collecting the data in the form of

I give my consent to the use of data for this purpose on the understanding that:

- I affirm that I read and understand the plain language statement provided by the researchers for the above research.
- I understand that my contribution in this study is voluntary and I am free to withdraw at any time without giving reasons and without any consequences.
- All names and other material likely to identify individuals will be anonymised.
- I accept the place and use of audio/video recording in the classroom or interviews.
- The material will be treated as confidential and kept in secure storage at all times.
- The material will be deleted within 10 years after the completion of the project (no later than 2026).
- The material may be used in future publications, both print and online.

Signed by the contributor _____ Date:

Signed on behalf of the contributor (i.e. parent/guardian in case of a person under 18)

_____ Date:

Contact Details:

Researcher's name and email contact: Mohammed Alharbi.

Email: lamarimod@hotmail.com , m.alharbi.2@research.gla.ac.uk

Supervisor name and email contact : Hazel Crichton. Email: hazel.crichton@glasgow.ac.uk

Department Address:

University of Glasgow, School of Education, St. Andrews Building, 11 Eldon Street, Glasgow,
G3 6NH

Appendix B2

Teachers Plain Language Statement



University of Glasgow | College of Social Sciences

Plain Language Statement (Teachers)

1. The study details

a- Title of the study

The potential effect of the use of the target language (TL) in learning and teaching English in the language classroom at university level in the Saudi Context.

b- Researcher's details

Mohamed AlHarbi, University of Glasgow, College of Social Science, School of Education, St. Andrews Building, Room 682
Email: m.alharbi.2@research.gla.ac.uk

b- Supervisor's details

Dr. Hazel Crichton, University of Glasgow, hazel.Crichton@glasgow.ac.uk
Dr. Fiona Patrick, University of Glasgow, Fiona.Patrick@glasgow.ac.uk

e- Degree being sought

Degree of Doctor of philosophy (PhD)

2. Invitation to participate in the study

You are being invited to take part in a research study that I am undertaking. Before you choose, if you can kindly take part, it is important for you to know why the research is being conducted and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with the researcher if you wish. Ask me if there is anything that is unclear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part in this study. Thank you for taking time reading this.

3. What is the purpose of the study?

The study aims to investigate the use of the target language in English teaching classes in a Saudi Arabian university context. The research aims to gain student perceptions of a communicative approach to English language teaching, with an emphasis on developing a specific skill, i.e. speaking. The research will also, investigate favourable and unfavourable

aspects of the language classroom, which may support or inhibit the development of speaking skills: language anxiety, self-confidence and motivation.

4. Why have I been chosen?

You have been chosen because you are an English language teacher, teaching English in the orientation year at a Saudi Arabian university or college. Your participation is therefore very valuable due to your experience teaching English. Your perceptions of the way that you are teaching students English and supporting them to develop their speaking skills will be very helpful in identifying strategies which help develop or not English communication skills.

5. Do I have to take part?

Taking part in the study is entirely voluntary. If you decide to take part and later on you no longer want to continue participating, you are still free to withdraw without giving reasons and without any consequences.

6. What will happen to me if I take part?

The project will involve English teachers being interviewed to express their perceptions about the teaching and learning practices in the language classroom. There will be one classroom observation for each class before the interviews. This observation will be focused on the process of language learning and teaching. If you consent, a video-recorder will be placed at the back of the class in order for the researcher to record the teaching and learning that goes on in the classroom and make notes afterwards. The recordings are for use as a stimulus for you, the teacher to discuss particular language teaching moves in the class and will not focus on individuals. An individual interview that will take place after the classroom observation will not take longer than an hour. The interview will be audio recorded with your consent for the purpose of interpreting responses (i.e. researcher use).

7. Will my taking part in this study be kept confidential?

All information collected about you during the study will be kept confidential. You will be identified as a teacher (e.g. coding teachers as T1 and T2), and using ID numbers if possible. Any information about you will have your name and address removed so that you cannot be recognized from it. Your name will be anonymously protected and confidential. Finally, data will be retained as outlined by the University of Glasgow guidelines that all materials used are kept safely (e.g. video recording in classroom observation) and will be restricted and not stored due to identification issues. In regard to interviews, audio recordings will be transcribed and used if required and also stored. These data materials will be secured on a computer, hard-drive, accessible only through the researcher and supervisor with a password, which will be changed often and then, at the end of the project destroyed by shredding. Please be advised that in future presentations or publications, all names of participants will not be identified.

8. What will happen to the results of the research study?

The results will be used in the PhD thesis. Any recommendations as a result of the study will be put to the education authorities, and maybe inform future actions.

9. Who is organising and funding the research? (If relevant)

There is no party organising and funding the research.

10. Who has reviewed the study?

The study has been reviewed by the University of Glasgow, College of Social Sciences Ethics Committee.

11. Contact for Further Information

a) Mohammed AlHarbi. University of Glasgow, School of Education. St Andrews Building, 11 Eldon Street , Glasgow. G3 6NH.

Email: m.alharbi.2@research.gla.ac.uk , lamarimod@hotmail.com

b) Dr. Hazel Crichton, University of Glasgow, School of Education, St. Andrews Building, 11 Eldon Street, Glasgow, G3 6NH

Email: hazel.Crichton@glasgow.ac.uk

c) Dr. Fiona Patrick, University of Glasgow, School of Education, St. Andrews Building, 11 Eldon Street, Glasgow, G3 6NH

Email: Fiona.Patrick@glasgow.ac.uk

d) Dr. Muir Houston, University of Glasgow, Ethhics Officer, the College of Social Sciences. The University of Glasgow.

Email: muir.Houston@glasgow.ac.uk

Appendix B3

Teachers' Interview questions



University of Glasgow | College of Social Sciences

Teachers' Interview Questions

University/ College:	Teaching Experience:
Qualification:	Nationality:
Additional qualifications (e.g. English teaching training courses):	
Current students level:	

These are the general questions that are going to be asked, but will remain alert to any issues that the teachers/learners bring up that may be relevant to the study and explore them as appropriate.

- 1- What is your perception about the importance of English language learning and teaching in Saudi Arabia?
- 2- Are you satisfied regarding the teaching methodologies in the language classroom at the university level in the Saudi context? Why.
- 3- What type of teaching method do you prefer to practise in the language classroom? Why.
- 4- How would you describe the learners' response and their feelings towards that teaching method practised? Why?
- 5- How active are your learners in the English language classroom?

- 6- Do the students prefer to remain silent or to be engaged and involved in speaking in class? Why?
- 7- What sort of approaches do you think encourage students to interact in English?
- 8- How are you familiar with the communicative language teaching approach (CLT)?
- 9- If yes, have you thought about practising it in your teaching? Why.
- 10- Is there a communicative interaction in the language classroom (e.g. negotiation for meaning, group discussion, etc.) when you communicate with your students? How and why?
- 11- Do you use the target language (TL) in the English language classroom? Why.
- 12- To what extent do you use the TL?
- 13- What challenges or obstacles may you and your learners experience when you use the TL? Why
- 14- What errors may your learners make when they respond to you in the TL?
- 15- Do you prefer to correct students' errors while teaching or delay them until the end of the lesson? Why.
- 16- What do you do to help your students speak English in class?
- Do you have anything about English teaching and learning that has not been covered in the interview?

Appendix C1:

Classroom Observation sheet:



University of Glasgow | College of Social Sciences

Classroom	Observation	Sheet
<i>Mohammed AlHarbi, PhD</i>		
<p>The aim of this classroom observation is to identify the English language learning and teaching strategies, practices and methodologies. It will also focus on the learners' and teacher's use of the target language (TL) in the classroom and explore wither communicative interaction by replacing a new teaching method to the language classroom of the context (e.g. communicative language teaching) can assist effectively in using the aimed study mentioned above. In addition, it will investigate the favourable and unfavourable aspects of the language classroom i.e. language anxiety, self-confidence and motivation and what are the teacher's actions and responses regarding them.</p> <p>A video recorder will be replaced at the back of the class to assist the researcher to go back to it and give his comments and feedback.</p>		
Setting of arrangement: Text and material: Teacher: NS- NNS ()	Number of Students: Level of students: Date: Age of Group:	Lesson: Gender of Students: Length of lesson:
1. What is the warm up activity to interact the learners and introduce them to the lesson if there is one and Describe it. How long does it take?		
2. a- Description of the teacher's relation with his learners in the classroom (responses, comments, dealing with individual students. etc. b- How comfortable do the learners seem to be with the teacher. c- What evidence is there to support this?		
3. a- What is the		

<p>methodology used in the classroom.</p> <p>b- what interactive activities are used.</p> <p>C-What is the learners' perceived reaction regarding them?</p> <p>d- Are the learners engaged, interacting and active in class or passive and tedious?</p> <p>e- What evidence is there for this?</p>	
<p>4. a- Do both learners and the teacher use the TL in the language classroom.</p> <p>b- What are the challenges both teacher and learners are encountering?</p> <p>c-How competent are the learners in communication in the TL.</p>	
<p>5. a-What are the language classroom aspects occurring (e.g. language anxiety including fear of negative evaluation and speaking in the L2, self-confidence and motivation)</p> <p>b- what are causing them?</p>	
<p>6. a- How does the teacher accommodate the learners' challenges in the TL.</p> <p>b-Does he/she practise scaffolding in classroom?</p> <p>c- Is the teacher practising error correction with his students due to learners' mistakes in class?</p>	

Appendix D1:

Student's Transcription

Q1- S38: *The English language is very important by all means as in developing yourself, in being communicated with others elsewhere “without English, life needs might be obstructed”.*

Q2- S38: *It is good to some extent, there are several English training courses at private English schools and even more intensive English at universities and colleges, and however it is not effective at school stages.*

Q3- S38: *Certainly. It is important to learn English first and this is essential. Then, I might prefer to choose learning another language as well such as French. Because the awareness of variety of languages can assist in communicating with the native speakers of these languages when going abroad. It is going to be easier.*

Q4- S38: *No. I know that I am very good in English but not satisfied. Because I am less than perfect so, I need to develop myself. I have to join a private English school*

Q5- S38: *In learning, it contributed to a level where we were had good basics. We used to speak with some native speaker at schools (AlManarat). We used to read news papers at schools, browse the internet English websites and read and understand example of English instructions in hand books brought by our English teachers. Teaching contributed a lot and teachers were very helpful in their teaching.*

Q6- S38: *Yes certainly, and with a good impact as well. And the teaching methods at schools stages were good and up to date as here. The teachers were NS as here as well. I believe that this university level assures the English knowledge acquired at the previous schools stages. It is very good here at the college and I am very happy about it and the teaching methods were supportive.*

Q7- S38: *Yes, certainly participating in order to have benefit and even be more useful and clarify to others who do not understand.*

Q8- S38: *I prefer to use English. Because the teacher's language is English and develops the student's English language in communication and discussion because you do not find outside the classroom a lot.*

Q9- S38: *It is better to be a NS teacher in order to learn it properly.*

Q10- S38: *Well, it depends on the teacher himself. If the teacher is fluent and competent in the language, that will not be an issue. Some may make errors in their pronunciation such Indians or even Egyptians sometimes but other may be competent.*

Q11- *I feel that I'm intellectual and better to be aware of number of languages; you know when you go abroad you can communicate and survive. I feel confident when I speak English.*

Q12- *Yes, it will greatly increase them. It will help the students to participate and to be involved with discussion with their peers and group discussion and it is better than discussing with a teacher because they might be afraid, so participation with his colleagues will increase learning.*

Q13- *Errors may be sometimes in pronunciations. Yes, if he corrects me I will not make the same error.*

Q14- *Yes, He speaks and discuss with us in English so you have to understand what he is talking about and you have to get use to the situation during the twelve weeks of the semester. Then in the end you will be capable to understand and can speak English and how to write.*

Q15- *He starts with revising the previous lesson, then starts explaining the same day's lesson and starts dividing us into groups and playing videos on the projector. He distributes sheets with several exercises in it, and then concludes the lesson with other competitive game activities.*

Appendix D2:

Teacher's Transcription

Q1:

T7: *I think by English being in such great demand in Saudi Arabia it's a very dynamic place to teach English. The reason I say this is because as a teacher you want to have a chance to interact possibly with a different variety of students. The interest here is from kindergarten age all the way up to adults who are trying to reach some professional development. You may not find this dynamic in other areas of the world where English may not be as in demand or as dominant as it is here in Saudi Arabia. The different institutions we have here offer different dynamics; we have colleges, we have teaching being offered privately and in the public sector, in corporate environments. The diversity of these different settings is also attractive for a teacher. Of course there are challenges, but over all I think learning and being a teacher here in Saudi Arabia pays off well, you will definitely be able to find your interest and your niche in the industry in this region.*

Q2:

I've been introduced to various methodologies since I've been here, the one that attracted me the most was one that was student centred. This didn't really emphasise the textbook as the main tool for lesson planning or classroom interaction, it was there to facilitate but it wasn't an obligatory element for the teacher to utilise. I like that freedom, it gave me the chance to really interact with the students, find out their strengths and weaknesses, adjusting the lesson plan accordingly to try to take them to the next level. However, in this setting the methodology is often traditionalised, when it's test-driven a lot of the time it is textbook orientated. So even though that philosophy is one that attracted me, I found that within a year or so I was influenced by the culture to go back into the somewhat traditional tests and administrative time and was not really able to give the students the customised attention that they really need. That's the difference in the methodologies, I would like to do it with more freedom, and it be less test driven and more student centred, whilst definitely meeting the outcomes. What I've found out at this college level, which is a public college, is that you're not able to have all of that in the curriculum. You may find it on a director level where you have two directors - the English directors that provide that freedom - but on a wider, broader, upper level scale they want to see tests, they want to see beginning and end outcomes, and what happens in between (laughs).

Q3:

T7: *For myself I like to first of all take time to survey my students. I want to get to know them; I don't want a humongous gap between me as a teacher and them as students. I want to reduce the gap between my interests, and their interests, and create this environment where mistakes are ok. We're going to be together as a family for three months and we want to make progress,*

but in a not very regulated, more open interest based, student centred way. You will get the grammar lessons - based on international standards - you will get the traditional listening practices that are conducive for you on your level, however, it won't be like you're in a classroom, locked down where there's no activity, no energy, no fun. I like task-based learning, project based learning, and using technology in the classroom. I was not as technologically driven in the States but here I challenge myself and have found it has made some things easier, so I like using technology in the classroom as well.

Q4:

T7: I think it's a breath of fresh air for many of the students. Prior to their interaction here at CTE the way they were taught English was very different, many of them weren't afforded a native speaker as a teacher unless they did it privately. A lot of them were just provided a test and a text book, the medium of text was maybe in English, but the modality of the speaking would be Arabic, so that was a conflict. Now they get a chance to interact with someone for whom it is their native language, they get introduced to different types of interactive ways to express the language. As a result many of them are like; "Wow I didn't know this even existed," because it is so different to what they have been accustomed to. If the teacher can maintain a level of lesson planning, consistently, say out of a week of five lessons you have two or three that really hit home with the students, I've found that they react very positively to you as an instructor and also to their classmates, and they look forward to coming to your class instead of running from it.

Q5:

T7: In my class I have a communication class so they're pretty active. I try to coordinate as much as I can with my teacher partner, and have those lesson plans counterpart effectively with each other but not overlap. I have some standout students. There are some that are really talented and have more English than others; there are some who are just beginning. That's just a part of our assessment process, we're not able to streamline as effectively as we would like, and because of the balance I try to mix it up so one side does not dominate it. For the most part I have been seeing my guys - who were very insular in the beginning - half way through the course, not only are they breaking out and starting to show some signs of confidence; more speaking, more interaction. This is because I'm not going to punish them if they make a mistake, and I'm going to applaud them greatly if they do something right.

Q6:

T7: If I didn't elicit, I would say 80% of the class I just left would be silent. That's why I was saying you really have to identify their interests; you need a lot of layers to generate that speaking. Without the layered approach, a good teacher with good personality who's creating and cultivating a good environment, then forget it, they're not going to give you any production, except those very talented ones which may just be one or three. With the

layered approach and a little bit of elicitation you'll find that you don't have to harp on at them to speak, but you do have to ask and they'll eventually provide some production.

Q7:

T7: I think it depends on if they're interested in their activity, giving them their free practice if they need it. Sometimes as teachers we control their practice too much, so they need to have time to show what they can do; so that's the balance that us as instructors have to really try to manage. After we give the lesson after we do all the foundation work and repeat all of the vocabulary, we should give them time, maybe we can stretch out the free practice from ten minutes to twenty. Maybe we can provide some basic handouts for guidance and let them try to create some production in groups. Again these are things that have to be cultivated from the beginning, for if you try to introduce this in week eight in a thirteen week course of which two are taken up due to testing, then you may not get that type of result. If you start from the beginning, slowly cultivating free practice and they see the results of it...The key is in the methodology and making sure that's preserved and cultivated throughout the term of the course.

Q8:

T7: Explain that to me

It's communicative language teaching... I'm sure you're familiar with it and practice it regularly in your classes. You just mentioned that in the previous question actually...

Q9:

T7: Yes in very different ways. I try to do questions and answers with the groups, we do post listening activities, normally we lead into some type of speaking, where we're able to do some 'true or false' to establish what actually happened, to make sure that they comprehended what they listened to, and that will lead to some type of group discussion. We have group presentations, I have audio podcasts, I have videos that the students also have to present. Sometimes I just want graphics or digital activities where they just do voiceovers; they don't have to sit in front of the class, I give them different types of production that I will accept, so those are the types of things I do.

Q10:

T7: Answered previously.

Q11:

T7: Skipped

Q12:

T7: Skipped

Q13:

T7: I think there are a few obstacles. You really have to try to keep the vocabulary very basic. For example the listening exercise I've just provided, I knew that those answers were within their frame of understanding and that's important. But I think the rate at which the person is speaking can be a challenge for them, also there is airborne interference when trying to process what I'm saying, especially the syntax and the word order which is why I wanted to go back over this. The listening is impacted when a native person is speaking. Another thing I think challenges me now is their pronunciation, I have to correct without finding a whole lot of fault, I don't want to tell them "Oh you're terrible." You have to develop a method of error correction, because there are pronunciation issues especially for the beginners. I want them to hear something authentic, I don't want them to hear only my voice, because once you leave the class you may talk to a Filipino in English you may talk to another Arab who's been to the States for a while who's speaking English, you may speak to another native. I like to introduce other voices, ladies' voices, men's voices, L2 users who are advanced, so that diversity can be challenging. So I think the selection of authenticity is also a challenge for some of the students to grasp when their ear is not fully developed.

Q14:

T7: I think grammatical errors. Dealing with fluency errors, there are word stress and intonation errors. You're not saying "China" but "Chy-nee". You're spelling it correctly, everything is fine but the intonation is off, so this is sometimes an issue. But other than that it is those basic pronunciation errors and things that you expect they can probably overcome. It gets better over the course of the term but it's really challenging, that first three weeks, you have to be really patient and identify what their problems are and try to create lessons around trying to improve these.

Q15:

T7: I think both; it's just the method and how you correct the error. You don't have to correct the error by telling the student that they're wrong, you can have one of your proficient students offer another suggestion to the 'comment', not 'error', that the other student made, I found that they like that. They have not too much distance and authority from the other student. I think I want them to get used to immediate responses for correction and I also want them to get used to delay, where we do it as a group. That's why after mini lessons I bring them to the board and we all are able to collectively correct it, and in that I will catch the individual errors.

Yes, it depends on the exercise, because this was a grammar review, they know this - especially with being in Gino's class I know what he does. We have a big test coming up so I wanted to spend fifteen minutes of every class helping them before the test, which is all grammar so I can do a lot of elicitations for corrections and error.

Exactly. I want them to get comfortable in the allowing the idea to flow as naturally as possible to its full extent without cutting it short.

Q16:

T7: I have the scaffolding. I have to pre-teach as I don't want to teach anything that's too over their level but I don't want them to get complacent. I have some students like Abdullah and Sultan - I mean Sultan got all those answers in his listening - so sometimes we have to customise a lesson where I give those guys something extra to keep them challenged. But I'm definitely a firm believer in pre-teaching vocabulary, and the scaffolding of the lessons. Also I think a big part of it is feedback, you've got to sit down with them, they've got to feel that you are interested, so we have those sessions once a week when we do portfolio checks. Ask me how you are doing and I will tell you, and hopefully we can develop a conversation and you kind of know this is something you should expect. Some of them aren't used to feedback but you do it a few times and it becomes something that they are engendered to expect.

Appendix: E1

Ministry of Education objectives

The eleventh objective was '*developing human resources, upgrading their productivity and expanding their options in acquiring knowledge, skills and experience*' (Ministry of Economy and planning, 2015). This can be done through,

General Education:

- Enhancing the knowledge and skills of teachers.
- Making the educational environment more attractive to young people in order to encourage them to learn.
- Making better use of modern technology in the educational setting; and improving internal control.
- Suggestion that nursery and kindergarten programs might be expanded and that the private sector be encouraged to invest in these.
- Programs of adult education and lifelong learning be developed.
- Modernising the academic curricula and, in particular, developing the curricula of Arabic language skills; science, mathematics, engineering and technology.
- Developing school rules and regulations to ensure compliance with the principles of fairness and competition, and to enhance internal control.

In terms of higher education specifically, human resources can be developed by

- Ensuring better alignment between education outputs and labor market needs.
- Improving communication between scholarship students and government agencies and encouraging the students to carry out research oriented towards the developmental challenges in the KSA and updating the curricula accordingly.
- Absorbing the graduates of scholarship programs and Saudi universities into the labor market.
- Assisting higher education students to gain practical experience through work experience programs, voluntary work and so forth.
- Modernising curricula of education to motivate innovative research

- Continues of overseas scholarship program be continued, particularly for students with specialisations which are in demand by the labor market.
- Administrative and financial autonomy to be granted to state-owned universities and new regulation of universities be endorsed.
- Developing the competence of higher education of academic assessment and accreditation to be expanded
- Expanding graduate studies programs and establishing specialized universities of science.
- Promoting the research part of universities in line with the future demands of the society.
- Enhancing professional development programs for university staff.

The education policy document of the MOE (1995) set seven goals for higher education, as follows:

1. Making students more aware of Islamic culture and their duty to God to make their skills useful and fruitful.
2. Preparing citizens who are scientifically and intellectually capable of doing their duty in the service of their country, and the progress of their nation, in keeping with the Islamic faith.
3. Giving gifted students the opportunity to continue postgraduate education in all fields.
4. Taking a positive part in the field of academic research which contributes to global progress in literature, science, and innovations.
5. Encouraging research and applied research to serve Islamic ideals, and assisting the country to take a leading role in the building of global civilization based on sound principles.
6. Translating useful research and academic works into Arabic.
7. Providing training to enable graduates who are already in employment to update their knowledge and skills.

Appendix: E2

a- University 1

i. University 1 vision in English learning and teaching

It is essential to realize that the ELI at KAU seeks to be the best tertiary education English language institute in the Middle East, and to encourage innovative English language learning (ELI at KAU, 2013).

ii. University objectives English learning and teaching

The ELI identified their objectives for the English language programme courses as follows:

- Assist learners in the orientation year to attain an Intermediate level of proficiency in the use of the English language, within one year.
- Use pedagogical methods that will encourage the retention and success of students
- Provide support and professional development for faculty members..
- Provide a progressive and structured curriculum, leading to students' achieving essential learning outcomes in listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

iii. ELI preview

The intensive English language course is an obligatory part of the orientation year courses for all KAU Foundation Year students. The program has four levels of instruction, corresponding to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) for L2 learning, and offers an integrated skill curriculum, which encourages active and independent learning.

The number of newly-admitted full-time students varies according to availability at KAU, but is usually from 12,000-15,000 students each year. ELI has comparatively small classes, with an average of 18-25 students per class and 18 hours per week for each class. The classrooms are equipped with the latest technological equipment.

iv. The English language programme design

According to the (ELI at KAU, 2013) the intensive English language course is content-based, and ranges from Beginner to Intermediate. The ELI ensures that these are accurate language proficiency standards by correlating ELI levels to internationally accepted proficiency standards, the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

(CEFR). There are four modules in the foundation year, two in each academic semester. Each module lasts seven academic weeks, with 18 hours of instruction per week. There is a final exam in the seventh week of each module. Students must pass the exam at one level to go on to the next level.

The textbooks used are related to the CEFR, with students going from level A1 level to B1 during the academic year. On admission, students take a test to ensure placement in the appropriate level. The placement test used is the Oxford Online Placement Test (OOPT). Students are placed in the relevant level, according to placement test scores ranging on a scale from 0-120.

vi. The ELI curriculum of the English programme

The orientation year English language programme curriculum consists of four core language courses. At the start of each module, faculty is provided with a detailed curriculum and course description, as well as expected students' learning outcomes (SLOs) for courses they are assigned to teach at the ELI. They are also given a detailed Pacing Guide for each course containing daily lesson planning guides and a Teacher's Book with lesson plans outlined for each class covered in the syllabi. The four English language courses offered by ELI in the Foundation Year at KAU are as follows:

- ELI 101 (Level 1 – CEFR A1) Beginner: 0 credit
- ELI 102 (Level 2 – CEFR A2) Elementary: 2 credits
- ELI 103 (Level 3 – CEFR A2-B1) Pre-Intermediate: 2 credits
- ELI 104 (Level 4 – CEFR B1) Intermediate: 2 credits (ELI at KAU, 2013).

Appendix: E3

b- College 1

Vision and mission:

To attain such level we would use the best in modern management techniques and training technology so that our graduates will better than they expect to be.

TVTC English preparatory year program was established in the 2011 as a joint venture between English Gate Academy and INRELINK Education, a US based consultancy. Using a task-based model, Saudi students fresh out of high school are given 39 weeks of English training before continuing their ESP, as part of their skills training curriculum. Unlike other such programs in the kingdom, materials are often generated with a students centered approach by the instructors at the site in an attempt to evolve learning as an individual and group educational experience through a variety of mediums that includes blended learning and expeditionary projects using the European curriculum framework.

Appendix: E4

c- College 2

The English Language Centre (ELC) at the JTC provides trainees with basic language skills and prepares them for employment in the public or private sector. The ELC claims that it employs a number of distinguished English language instructors who seek for every means to enrich their English language trainees' level in their L2 practices with its technical English terminologies. This is considered as one of the main standards in evaluating the college's outcomes (JTC, 2014).

Their mission statement revolves around obtaining a distinguished education in an interactive and unique environment, which could contain 'creative training in unique & enjoyable environment' (JTC, 2014). Furthermore, their vision focuses on acquiring a featured scientific education to achieve the first place in Jeddah within the coming three years. Their strategic goals were as follows:

- Preparing the trainees to have high linguistic skills.
- Improving and refining the curriculum, aligning it with the needs of the community.
- Nurturing a positive relationship between the instructors and their trainees that should be based on friendship and respect.
- Building a training partnership with the private sector in the field of English language learning.
- Creating a positive relationship between members of the training staff at the JTC and the ELC.
- Generating a stimulating training environment for the acquisition of L2 skills in a specific competitive environment.
- Developing English language instructors through training courses in the field of teaching English.

Nevertheless, the plans for the ELC at the JTC appear to be a repetition of what had been discussed in their vision and objectives, as they stated that they would attempt to create a suitable environment for their English teachers and their learners, and so forth.

Appendix F1:

Approval of Institutions:
University 1:

KINGDOM OF SAUDI ARABIA
Ministry of Higher Education
KING ABDULAZIZ UNIVERSITY



المملكة العربية السعودية
وزارة التعليم العالي
جامعة الملك عبد العزيز

Ref. :
Date :
Encl. :

الرقم :
التاريخ :
المرفقات :

To Whom it May Concern,

This is to certify that Mr. Mohammed Salem Al-Harbi has visited the English language Institute at King Abdulaziz University, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia. During his visit, he has extensively worked on collecting his data for the purpose of his studies. In fact, he has showed great personal skills and a great potential for his research in his field.

Also, he has engaged himself in many of our teaching and learning workshops in order to gain a depth knowledge into the actual dealings with the materials in hand.

We are happy to confirm our approval for his data collection.

I wish Mr. Mohammed Al-Harbi all the best in his studies.

Regards,


Dr. Tariq Elyas

Vice-Dean for Graduate Studies

English Language Institute

King Abdulaziz University

Saudi Arabia

Appendix F2:

Approval of Institutions:

College 1:

KINGDOM OF SAUDI ARABIA
Technical and Vocational Training Corporation
College of Telecommunications & Electronics

المملكة العربية السعودية
المؤسسة العامة للتدريب التقني والمهني
كلية الاتصالات والإلكترونيات
(٢٠٢/٢/١٨/٢٢٤)

الرقم: ١٢٤/ع التاريخ: ١١ / ٢٠ / ١٤٣٥ هـ الموافق: 15/9/2014

To whom it may concern

This is to certify that Mr. Mohammed Alharbi has visited the College of Telecom & Electronics Jeddah, Saudi Arabia. During his visit he requested that he would like to conduct his field work at the College of Telecom & Electronics for his PhD degree in the period between February until April 2015. We would like to inform that we are happy to confirm the approval of his data collection in the period mentioned above.

Regard,,,

Dean of College of Telecom & Electronics
Eng. Fahad O. Alamoudi

العماد

المؤسسة العامة للتدريب التقني والمهني
كلية الاتصالات والإلكترونيات
جدة


ص.ب ٢٨١٦ جدة ٢١٤٦١ - شارع التلفزيون - تليفون ٦٣٦٤٠٠٠ - فاكس ٦٣٧٤٩١٣
P.O.Box 2816 Jeddah 21461 - T.V Street - Tel: 6364000 - Fax 6374913

www.cte.edu.sa

Appendix F3:

Approval of Institutions:

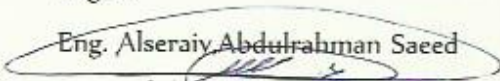
College 2:


KINGDOM OF SAUDI ARABIA Technical and Vocational Training Corporation Jeddah College of Technology (224 / 1 / 18 / 224)		المملكة العربية السعودية المؤسسة العامة للتدريب التقني والمهني الكلية التقنية بمحافظة جدة (٢٠٢ / ١ / ١٨ / ٢٢٤)
المشروعات :	التاريخ : / / ١٤٣٣ هـ	الرقم :

To Whom it may Concern

This is to certify that **Mr. Mohammed AlHarbi** has visited the Jeddah College of Technology, Saudi Arabia. During his visit he requested that he would like to conduct his filed work at the Jeddah College of Technology for his PhD degree in the period between February until April 2015. We would like to inform you that we are happy to confirm the approval of his data collection in the period mentioned above.

Regard

Eng. Alseraiy Abdulrahman Saeed

Dean of the College


Technical And Vocational
Training Corporation
College Of Technology
Jeddah

طابع واتممه المعهد الصناعي الثانوي بجدة - قسم الطباعة ١٤١٥ هـ

جدة - ص. ب. : ١٧٦٠٨ - الرمز البريدي ٢١٤٩٤ - تليفون سنترال : ٦٣٧٠٣٨٧ / ٦٣٧٧٥٠٦ - فاكس : ٦٣٧٨٣٧٦
Jeddah - P.O. Box : 17608 - Code 21494 - Tel. Centri : 6370387 / 6377506 - Fax : 6378376

www.jct.edu.sa

Appendix G1:

Example of material and content of institutions visited:

SCANS	BEST Plus Form A	BEST Form B
<p>Most SCANS standards are met, with particular focus on:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Acquiring and evaluating information • Allocating time • Improving basic skills • Organizing and maintaining information • Participating as a member of a team • Practicing self-management 	<p>Overall test preparation is supported, with particular impact on the following items:</p> <p>Level 1: 4.2 Level 3: 4.1</p>	<p>Overall test preparation is supported, with particular impact on the following areas:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Calendar • Oral interview • Personal information • Reading passages • Time/Numbers • Writing notes
<p>Most SCANS standards are met, with particular focus on:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improving basic skills • Knowing how to learn • Organizing and maintaining information • Participating as a member of a team • Practicing self-management • Teaching others 	<p>Overall test preparation is supported, with particular impact on the following items:</p> <p>Level 1: 1.2 Level 2: 3.1</p>	<p>Overall test preparation is supported, with particular impact on the following areas:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Money and shopping • Oral interview • Personal information • Reading notices • Reading passages • Writing notes
<p>Most SCANS standards are met, with particular focus on:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Acquiring and evaluating information • Improving basic skills • Interpreting and communicating information • Knowing how to learn • Participating as a member of a team • Practicing self-management 	<p>Overall test preparation is supported, with particular impact on the following items:</p> <p>Locator: W5–W6 Level 1: 4.2 Level 3: 4.1</p>	<p>Overall test preparation is supported, with particular impact on the following areas:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employment and training • Money • Numbers • Oral interview • Personal information • Reading passages • Reading signs, ads, and notices • Writing notes
<p>Most SCANS standards are met, with particular focus on:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Acquiring and evaluating information • Improving basic skills • Interpreting and communicating information • Knowing how to learn • Organizing and maintaining information • Practicing self-management 	<p>Overall test preparation is supported, with particular impact on the following items:</p> <p>Locator: W6 Level 1: 2.1, 2.3 Level 2: 1.1, 1.2, 1.3</p>	<p>Overall test preparation is supported, with particular impact on the following areas:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Calendar • Housing • Oral interview • Personal information • Reading passages • Reading signs, ads, and notices • Writing notes
<p>Most SCANS standards are met, with particular focus on:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Acquiring and evaluating information • Improving basic skills • Interpreting and communicating information • Knowing how to learn • Organizing and maintaining information • Participating as a member of a team • Practicing self-management • Practicing sociability 	<p>Overall test preparation is supported, with particular impact on the following items:</p> <p>Level 1: 4.1, 4.2, 4.3 Level 3: 4.1</p>	<p>Overall test preparation is supported, with particular impact on the following areas:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Calendar • Oral interview • Personal information • Reading passages • Reading signs, ads, and notices • Time/Numbers • Writing notes

Correlations

UNIT/PAGES	CASAS	EFF
Unit 1 Personal information pages 6–17	0.1.2, 0.1.4, 0.1.5, 0.2.1, 2.3.2, 4.8.1, 6.0.1, 7.4.1, 7.4.2, 7.4.3, 7.5.1	Most EFF standards are met, with particular focus on: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conveying ideas in writing • Cooperating with others • Listening actively • Reading with understanding • Reflecting and evaluating • Speaking so others can understand • Taking responsibility for learning
Unit 2 At school pages 18–29	0.1.2, 0.1.5, 1.4.1, 2.3.2, 4.5.1, 4.8.1, 7.4.1, 7.4.2, 7.4.3, 7.5.1	Most EFF standards are met, with particular focus on: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assessing what one knows already • Organizing and presenting information • Paying attention to the conventions of spoken English • Seeking feedback and revising accordingly • Working with pictures and numbers
Unit 3 Friends and family pages 32–43	0.1.2, 0.1.4, 0.1.5, 0.2.1, 4.8.1, 7.4.1, 7.4.2, 7.4.3, 7.5.1, 8.3.1	Most EFF standards are met, with particular focus on: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conveying ideas in writing • Cooperating with others • Listening actively • Monitoring comprehension and adjusting reading strategy • Offering clear input on own interests and attitudes • Organizing and presenting information
Unit 4 Health pages 44–55	0.1.2, 0.1.4, 0.1.5, 0.2.1, 3.1.1, 3.1.3, 3.3.1, 3.3.2, 3.4.1, 4.8.1, 7.4.1, 7.4.2, 7.4.3, 7.5.1, 8.3.2	Most EFF standards are met, with particular focus on: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Anticipating and identifying problems • Attending to oral information • Interacting with others in ways that are friendly, courteous and tactful • Solving problems and making decisions • Speaking so others can understand • Using strategies appropriate to goals
Unit 5 Around town pages 58–69	0.1.2, 0.1.4, 0.1.5, 0.2.1, 1.1.3, 2.2.1, 2.2.3, 2.2.5, 2.5.4, 4.8.1, 7.1.1, 7.4.1, 7.4.2, 7.4.3, 7.4.8, 7.5.1, 7.5.6	Most EFF standards are met, with particular focus on: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Seeking feedback and revising accordingly • Seeking input from others • Selecting appropriate reading strategies • Speaking so others can understand • Taking responsibility for learning

SCANS	BEST Plus Form A	BEST Form B
<p>Most SCANS standards are met, with particular focus on:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Acquiring and evaluating information • Improving basic skills • Organizing and maintaining information • Participating as a member of a team • Practicing self-management • Working with cultural diversity 	<p>Overall test preparation is supported, with particular impact on the following items:</p> <p>Locator: W1–W2, W7</p>	<p>Overall test preparation is supported, with particular impact on the following areas:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Calendar • Numbers • Oral interview • Personal information • Reading passages • Writing notes
<p>Most SCANS standards are met, with particular focus on:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improving basic skills • Interpreting and communicating information • Organizing and maintaining information • Participating as a member of a team • Practicing self-management • Serving clients and customers 	<p>Overall test preparation is supported, with particular impact on the following items:</p> <p>Locator: W1 Level 2: 4.2 Level 3: 5.1</p>	<p>Overall test preparation is supported, with particular impact on the following areas:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Calendar • Oral interview • Personal information • Reading passages • Writing notes
<p>Most SCANS standards are met, with particular focus on:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Acquiring and evaluating information • Improving basic skills • Interpreting and communicating information • Organizing and maintaining information • Participating as a member of a team • Practicing self-management 	<p>Overall test preparation is supported, with particular impact on the following items:</p> <p>Locator W7–W8</p>	<p>Overall test preparation is supported, with particular impact on the following areas:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Housing • Oral interview • Personal information • Reading passages • Writing notes
<p>Most SCANS standards are met, with particular focus on:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Acquiring and evaluating information • Interpreting and communicating information • Organizing and maintaining information • Participating as a member of a team • Practicing self-management • Serving clients and customers 	<p>Overall test preparation is supported, with particular impact on the following items:</p> <p>Level 2: 5.1</p>	<p>Overall test preparation is supported, with particular impact on the following areas:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Food labels • Health and parts of the body • Oral interview • Personal information • Reading passages • Writing notes
<p>Most SCANS standards are met, with particular focus on:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Acquiring and evaluating information • Improving basic skills • Interpreting and communicating information • Knowing how to learn • Organizing and maintaining information • Participating as a member of a team • Practicing self-management • Teaching others 	<p>Overall test preparation is supported, with particular impact on the following items:</p> <p>Locator: W2 Level 1: 3.1, 3.2 Level 2: 2.1, 5.2 Level 3: 2.1, 2.2, 5.1</p>	<p>Overall test preparation is supported, with particular impact on the following areas:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Directions • Oral interview • Personal information • Reading passages • Reading signs • Writing notes

UNIT/PAGES	CASAS	EFF
Unit 6 Time pages 70–81	0.1.2, 0.1.4, 0.1.5, 0.2.1, 2.3.1, 2.3.2, 4.5.3, 4.8.1, 6.0.1, 7.1.1, 7.1.4, 7.4.1, 7.4.2, 7.4.3, 7.5.1	Most EFF standards are met, with particular focus on: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Attending to oral information • Identifying own strengths and weaknesses as a learner • Interacting with others in ways that are friendly, courteous and tactful • Monitoring comprehension and adjusting reading strategies • Organizing and presenting information
Unit 7 Shopping pages 84–95	0.1.2, 0.1.4, 0.1.5, 0.2.1, 1.1.6, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.9, 1.6.3, 4.8.1, 6.0.1, 7.1.1, 7.4.1, 7.4.2, 7.4.3, 7.5.1, 8.1.4	Most EFF standards are met, with particular focus on: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cooperating with others • Listening actively • Reading with understanding • Reflecting and evaluating • Speaking so others can understand • Taking responsibility for learning
Unit 8 Work pages 96–107	0.1.2, 0.1.4, 0.1.5, 0.2.1, 1.1.6, 2.3.2, 4.1.3, 4.1.6, 4.1.8, 4.8.1, 4.8.2, 6.0.1, 7.1.1, 7.1.4, 7.4.1, 7.4.2, 7.5.1	Most EFF standards are met, with particular focus on: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Attending to oral information • Listening actively • Monitoring comprehension and adjusting reading strategies • Reading with understanding • Reflecting and evaluating • Speaking so others can understand
Unit 9 Daily living pages 110–121	0.1.2, 0.1.5, 0.2.1, 0.2.4, 1.4.1, 1.7.4, 4.1.8, 4.7.3, 4.7.4, 4.8.1, 7.1.1, 7.4.1, 7.4.2, 7.4.3, 7.5.6, 8.1.4, 8.2.1, 8.2.2, 8.2.3, 8.2.4, 8.2.5	Most EFF standards are met, with particular focus on: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identifying own strengths and weaknesses as a learner • Interacting with others in ways that are friendly, courteous and tactful • Monitoring progress toward goals • Offering clear input on own interests and attitudes • Organizing and presenting information • Reading with understanding
Unit 10 Leisure pages 122–133	0.1.1, 0.1.2, 0.1.4, 0.1.5, 0.2.1, 0.2.4, 2.3.1, 2.3.2, 4.8.1, 7.1.1, 7.4.1, 7.4.2, 7.4.3, 7.5.1, 7.5.6	Most EFF standards are met, with particular focus on: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conveying ideas in writing • Cooperating with others • Listening actively • Reading with understanding • Reflecting and evaluating • Speaking so others can understand • Taking responsibility for learning

Touchstone Level 1 Scope and sequence

	Functions / Topics	Grammar	Vocabulary	Conversation strategies	Pronunciation
Unit 1 All about you pages 1–10	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Say hello and good-bye Introduce yourself Exchange personal information (names, phone numbers, and e-mail addresses) Spell names Thank people 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The verb <i>be</i> with <i>I, you,</i> and <i>we</i> in statements, <i>yes-no</i> questions, and short answers Questions with <i>What's . . . ?</i> and answers with <i>It's . . .</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Expressions to say hello and good-bye Numbers 0–10 Personal information Everyday expressions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ask <i>How about you?</i> Use everyday expressions like <i>Yeah</i> and <i>Thanks</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Letters and numbers E-mail addresses
Unit 2 In class pages 11–20	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ask and say where people are Name personal items and classroom objects Ask and say where things are in a room Make requests Give classroom instructions Apologize 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The verb <i>be</i> with <i>he, she,</i> and <i>they</i> in statements, <i>yes-no</i> questions, and short answers Articles <i>a, an,</i> and <i>the</i> <i>This</i> and <i>these</i> Noun plurals Questions with <i>Where . . . ?</i> Possessives 's and s' 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Personal items Classroom objects Prepositions and expressions of location 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ask for help in class Respond to <i>Thank you</i> and <i>I'm sorry</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Noun plural endings
Unit 3 Favorite people pages 21–30	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Talk about famous people Describe people's personalities Talk about friends and family 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Possessive adjectives The verb <i>be</i> in statements, <i>yes-no</i> questions, and short answers (summary) Information questions with <i>be</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Types of famous people Basic adjectives Adjectives to describe personality Family members Numbers 10–101 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Show interest by repeating information and asking questions Use <i>Really?</i> to show interest or surprise 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Is he . . . ?</i> or <i>Is she . . . ?</i>
Touchstone checkpoint Units 1–3 pages 31–32					

Unit 4 Everyday life pages 33–42	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Describe a typical morning in your home Discuss weekly routines Get to know someone Talk about lifestyles 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Simple present statements, <i>yes-no</i> questions, and short answers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Verbs for everyday activities Days of the week Time expressions for routines 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Say more than <i>yes</i> or <i>no</i> when you answer a question Start answers with <i>Well</i> if you need time to think, or if the answer isn't a simple <i>yes</i> or <i>no</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -s endings of verbs
Unit 5 Free time pages 43–52	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Discuss free-time activities Talk about TV shows you like and don't like Talk about TV-viewing habits 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Simple present information questions Frequency adverbs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Types of TV shows Free-time activities Time expressions for frequency Expressions for likes and dislikes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ask questions in two ways to be clear and not too direct Use <i>I mean</i> to repeat your ideas or to say more 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Do you . . . ?</i>
Unit 6 Neighborhoods pages 53–62	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Describe a neighborhood Ask for and tell the time Make suggestions Discuss advertising 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>There's</i> and <i>There are</i> Quantifiers Adjectives before nouns Telling time Suggestions with <i>Let's</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Neighborhood places Basic adjectives Expressions for telling the time 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Use <i>Me too</i> or <i>Me neither</i> to show you have something in common with someone Respond with <i>Right</i> or <i>I know</i> to agree with someone, or to show you are listening 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Word stress
Touchstone checkpoint Units 4–6 pages 63–64					

Listening	Reading	Writing	Vocabulary notebook	Free talk
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Recognize responses to hello and good-bye <i>Memberships</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen for personal information, and complete application forms 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Different types of identification cards and documents 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Complete an application 	<i>Meetings and greetings</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Write new expressions with their responses 	<i>Meet a famous person.</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Class activity: Introduce yourself and complete name cards for three "famous people"
<i>Who's absent?</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen to a classroom conversation, and say where students are <i>Following instructions</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Recognize classroom instructions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Classroom conversations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Write questions about locations 	<i>My things</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Link things with places 	<i>What do you remember?</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pair work: How much can you each remember about a picture?
<i>Friends</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen to three people's descriptions of their friends, and fill in the missing words 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A family tree 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Write questions about people 	<i>All in the family</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Make a family tree 	<i>Talk about your favorite people.</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pair work: Score points for each thing you say about your favorite people

Touchstone checkpoint Units 1–3 pages 31–32

<i>What's the question?</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen to answers and infer the questions <i>Teen habits</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen for information in a conversation, and complete a chart about a teenager's habits 	<i>In the lifetime of an average American . . .</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A magazine article describing how much time people spend on daily activities over a lifetime 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Write an e-mail message about a classmate Use capital letters and periods 	<i>Verbs, verbs, verbs</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Draw and label simple pictures of new vocabulary 	<i>Interesting facts</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Class survey: Ask questions to compare your classmates with the average New Yorker
<i>What do they say next?</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen to conversations and predict what people say next <i>Using computers</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen for the ways two people use their computers 	<i>Are you an Internet addict?</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A magazine article and questionnaire about Internet use 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Write a message to a Web site about yourself Link ideas with <i>and</i> and <i>but</i> 	<i>Do what? Go where?</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Write verbs with the words you use after them 	<i>Play a board game.</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pair work: Do the activities and see who gets from class to Hawaii first
<i>What's on this weekend?</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen to a radio broadcast for the times and places of events <i>City living</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen for topics in a conversation, and then react to statements 	<i>Classifieds</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A variety of classified ads from a local newspaper 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Write an ad for a bulletin board Use prepositions for time and place: <i>between, through, at, on, for, and from . . . to . . .</i> 	<i>A time and a place . . .</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Link times of the day with activities 	<i>Find the differences.</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pair work: List all the differences you find between two neighborhoods

Touchstone checkpoint Units 4–6 pages 63–64

	Functions / Topics	Grammar	Vocabulary	Conversation strategies	Pronunciation
Unit 7 <i>Out and about</i> pages 65–74	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Describe the weather Leave phone messages Talk about sports and exercise Say how your week is going Give exercise advice 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Present continuous statements, <i>yes-no</i> questions, short answers, and information questions Imperatives 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Seasons Weather Sports and exercise with <i>play, do, and go</i> Common responses to good and bad news 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ask follow-up questions to keep a conversation going React with expressions like <i>That's great!</i> and <i>That's too bad.</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Stress and intonation in questions
Unit 8 <i>Shopping</i> pages 75–84	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Talk about clothes Ask for and give prices Shop for gifts Discuss shopping habits 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Like to, want to, need to, and have to</i> Questions with <i>How much . . . ?</i> <i>This, these; that, those</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Clothing and accessories Jewelry Colors Shopping expressions Prices "Time to think" expressions "Conversation sounds" 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Take time to think using <i>Uh, Um, Well, Let's see, and Let me think</i> Use "sounds" like <i>Uh-huh</i> to show you are listening, and <i>Oh</i> to show your feelings 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Want to and have to</i>
Unit 9 <i>A wide world</i> pages 85–94	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Give sightseeing information Talk about countries you want to travel to Discuss international foods, places, and people 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Can and can't</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sightseeing activities Countries Regions Languages Nationalities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Explain words using <i>a kind of, kind of like, and like</i> Use <i>like</i> to give examples 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Can and can't</i>
Touchstone checkpoint Units 7–9 pages 95–96					

Unit 10 <i>Busy lives</i> pages 97–106	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ask for and give information about the recent past Describe the past week Talk about how you remember things 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Simple past statements, <i>yes-no</i> questions, and short answers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Simple past irregular verbs Time expressions for the past Fixed expressions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Respond with expressions like <i>Good luck, That's terrible!</i> etc. Use <i>You did?</i> to show that you are interested or surprised, or that you are listening 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>-ed</i> endings
Unit 11 <i>Looking back</i> pages 107–116	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Describe experiences such as your first day of school or work Talk about a vacation Tell a funny story 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Simple past of <i>be</i> in statements, <i>yes-no</i> questions, and short answers Simple past information questions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Adjectives to describe feelings Expressions with <i>go and get</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Show interest by answering a question and then asking a similar one Use <i>Anyway</i> to change the topic or end a conversation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Stress and intonation in questions and answers
Unit 12 <i>Fabulous food</i> pages 117–126	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Talk about food likes and dislikes and eating habits Make requests and offers Invite someone to a meal Make recommendations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Countable and uncountable nouns <i>How much . . . ?</i> and <i>How many . . . ?</i> <i>Would you like (to) . . . ?</i> and <i>I'd like (to) . . .</i> <i>Some and any</i> <i>A lot of, much, and many</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Foods and food groups Expressions for eating habits Adjectives to describe restaurants 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Use <i>or something</i> and <i>or anything</i> to make a general statement End <i>yes-no</i> questions with <i>or . . . ?</i> to be less direct 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Would you . . . ?</i>
Touchstone checkpoint Units 10–12 pages 127–128					

Listening	Reading	Writing	Vocabulary notebook	Free talk
<p><i>How's your week going?</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen to people talk about their week, and react appropriately <p><i>Do you enjoy it?</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen to conversations and identify what type of exercise each person does and why he or she enjoys it 	<p><i>Don't wait – just walk!</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> An article about the benefits of walking for exercise 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Write a short article giving advice about exercise Use imperatives to give advice 	<p><i>Who's doing what?</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Write new words in true sentences 	<p><i>What's popular? What's not?</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Group work: Discuss questions about current popular topics
<p><i>I'll take it.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen to conversations in a store, and write the prices of items and which items people buy <p><i>Favorite places to shop</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen to someone talk about shopping, and identify shopping preferences and habits 	<p><i>Shopping around the world</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> An article about famous shopping spots around the world 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Write a recommendation for a shopper's guide Link ideas with <i>because</i> to give reasons 	<p><i>Nice outfit!</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Label pictures with new vocabulary 	<p><i>How do you like to dress?</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Class activity: Survey classmates about the things they like to wear
<p><i>National dishes</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen to a person talking about international foods, and identify the foods he likes <p><i>What language is it from?</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen to a conversation, and identify the origin and meaning of words 	<p><i>The travel guide</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A page from a travel Web site with information, pictures, and travel advice 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Write a paragraph for a Web page for tourists Use commas in lists 	<p><i>People and nations</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Group new vocabulary in two ways 	<p><i>Where in the world . . . ?</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pair work: Name different countries or cities where you can do interesting things

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<p><i>What a week!</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen to people describe their week, and choose a response <p><i>Don't forget!</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen for how people remember things, and identify the methods they use 	<p><i>Ashley's journal</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A week in Ashley's life from her personal journal 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Write a personal journal Order events with <i>before, after, when, and then</i> 	<p><i>Ways with verbs</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Write down information about new verbs 	<p><i>Yesterday . . .</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pair work: Use the clues in a picture to "remember" what you did yesterday
<p><i>Weekend fun</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen to a conversation about last weekend, and identify main topics and details <p><i>Funny stories</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen to two stories, identify the details, and then predict the endings 	<p><i>Letters from our readers</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A letter telling a funny story about a reader's true experience 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Complete a funny story Use punctuation to show direct quotations or speech 	<p><i>Past experiences</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Use a time chart to log new vocabulary 	<p><i>Guess where I went on vacation.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Group work: Ask and answer questions to guess where each person went on vacation
<p><i>Lunchtime</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen to people talking about lunch, and identify what they want; then react to statements <p><i>Do you recommend it?</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen to someone tell a friend about a restaurant, and identify important details about it 	<p><i>Restaurant guide</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Restaurant descriptions and recommendations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Write a restaurant review Use adjectives to describe restaurants 	<p><i>I love to eat!</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Group vocabulary by things you like and don't like 	<p><i>Do you live to eat or eat to live?</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Class activity: Survey classmates to find out about their eating habits

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Touchstone Level 2 Scope and sequence

	Functions / Topics	Grammar	Vocabulary	Conversation strategies	Pronunciation
Unit 1 Making friends pages 1–10	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ask questions to get to know your classmates Talk about yourself, your family, and your favorite things Show you have something in common 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Review of simple present and present of <i>be</i> in questions and statements Responses with <i>too</i> and <i>either</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Review of types of TV shows, clothes, food, and weekend activities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Start a conversation with someone you don't know Use <i>actually</i> to give or "correct" information 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Stress and intonation in questions and answers
Unit 2 Interests pages 11–20	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ask about people's interests and hobbies Talk about your interests, hobbies, and taste in books 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Verb forms after <i>can / can't, love, like, etc.</i>, and prepositions Object pronouns <i>Everybody, everyone, nobody, and no one</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Interests and hobbies Types of books 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Say <i>no</i> in a friendly way Use <i>really</i> and <i>not really</i> to make statements stronger or softer 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Saying lists
Unit 3 Health pages 21–30	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Talk about how to stay healthy Describe common health problems Talk about what you do when you have a health problem 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Simple present and present continuous Joining clauses with <i>if</i> and <i>when</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ways to stay healthy Common health problems Common remedies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Encourage people to say more to keep a conversation going Show surprise 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Contrasts
Touchstone checkpoint Units 1–3 pages 31–32					

Unit 4 Celebrations pages 33–42	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Talk about special occasions and favorite holidays Describe how you celebrate special days Talk about plans and predictions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Future with <i>going to</i> Indirect objects Indirect object pronouns Present continuous for the future 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Months of the year Days of the month Special days, celebrations, and holidays Things people do to celebrate special days 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Use "vague" expressions like <i>and everything</i> Give "vague" responses like <i>I don't know</i> and <i>Maybe</i> when you're not sure 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reduction of <i>going to</i>
Unit 5 Growing up pages 43–52	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Talk about life events and memories of growing up Talk about school and your early memories 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Review of simple past in questions and statements <i>be born</i> General and specific use of determiners 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Time expressions for the past Saying years School subjects 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Correct things you say with expressions like <i>Well; Actually; and No, wait</i> Use <i>I mean</i> to correct yourself when you say the wrong word or name 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reduction of <i>did you</i>
Unit 6 Around town pages 53–62	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ask and answer questions about places in a town Give directions Offer help and ask for directions Talk about stores and favorite places in your town Recommend places in your neighborhood 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Is there? and Are there?</i> Pronouns <i>one</i> and <i>some</i> Offers and requests with <i>Can</i> and <i>Could</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Places in town Location expressions Expressions for asking and giving directions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Repeat key words to check information Use "checking" expressions to check information Use "echo" questions to check information 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Word stress in compound nouns
Touchstone checkpoint Units 4–6 pages 63–64					

Listening	Reading	Writing	Vocabulary notebook	Free talk
<p><i>What's the question?</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen to answers and match them with questions <p><i>Alfredo's class gathering</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen to responses and match them to conversation starters; then listen for more information 	<p><i>How to improve your conversation skills</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A magazine article giving advice 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Write an article giving advice on how to improve something Review of punctuation 	<p><i>Webs of words</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Use word webs to organize new vocabulary 	<p><i>Me too!</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Class activity: Ask questions to find classmates who have things in common with you
<p><i>Different hobbies</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Match four conversations about hobbies with photos, and fill in a chart <p><i>Favorite Web sites</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen for details as two people talk about a Web site 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A Web page for hobby groups 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Write an e-mail message to one of the hobby groups on the Web page Link ideas with <i>and</i>, <i>also</i>, <i>especially</i>, <i>or</i>, <i>but</i>, and <i>because</i> 	<p><i>I really like to read!</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Link new words together in word "chains" 	<p><i>The game of likes and dislikes</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Group work: Each person fills out a chart. Then groups compare answers and score points for finding things in common.
<p><i>Unhealthy habits</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Predict what four people will say about their bad habits, and then listen for the exact words <p><i>Time to chill out</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Match four conversations about relaxing with photos, and listen for details 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A leaflet about stress from the Department of Health 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Write a question asking advice about a health problem, and write replies to your classmates' questions Commas after <i>if</i> and <i>when</i> clauses 	<p><i>Under the weather</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Write down words you can use with a new word or expression 	<p><i>Are you taking care of your health?</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pair work: Answer a health questionnaire with your partner, and figure out your partner's score

Touchstone checkpoint Units 1–3 pages 31–32

<p><i>Two special events</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen to people talk about two special events, and answer questions <p><i>Congratulations!</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen for details in two conversations about invitations, and fill in the blanks 	<p><i>An invitation to a wedding!</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> An article about traditions in different countries 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Write an invitation to a special event, and add a personal note Formal and informal ways to begin and end a note or letter 	<p><i>Calendars</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Write new vocabulary about special days and celebrations on a calendar 	<p><i>A special event</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Group work: Create a new special day or festival, and talk about it with other groups
<p><i>I don't remember exactly . . .</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen for corrections people make as they talk about childhood memories <p><i>A long time ago</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen for details as a woman talks about her early memories 	<p><i>An interview with . . . Bill Drake</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> An interview with a man who talks about his early school memories 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Write interview questions to ask a classmate about when he or she was younger, and reply to a classmate's questions Link ideas with <i>except (for)</i> and <i>apart from</i> 	<p><i>I hated math!</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Group new vocabulary in different ways 	<p><i>In the past</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Class activity: Ask your classmates questions about their childhood, and take notes
<p><i>Finding your way around</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Match four sets of directions with the destinations by following the map <p><i>Tourist information</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen to conversations at a tourist-information desk, and predict what each person says next to check the information 	<p><i>A walking tour of San Francisco's Chinatown</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pages from a walking-tour guide 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Write a guide for a walking tour of your city or town Expressions for giving directions 	<p><i>Which way?</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Draw and label a map to remember directions 	<p><i>Summer fun</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pair work: Ask and answer questions about two different resorts, and choose one for a vacation

Touchstone checkpoint Units 4–6 pages 63–64

	Functions / Topics	Grammar	Vocabulary	Conversation strategies	Pronunciation
Unit 7 Going away pages 65–74	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Talk about things you need to do before a trip Give advice and make suggestions Talk about travel and vacations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Infinitives for reasons <i>It's</i> + adjective + <i>to</i> . . . Ways to give advice and make suggestions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Things to do before a trip Things to take on different kinds of trips 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Respond to suggestions Use <i>I guess</i> when you're not sure 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reduction of <i>to</i>
Unit 8 At home pages 75–84	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Talk about where you keep things at home Talk about home furnishings Identify objects Talk about home habits and evening routines 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Whose</i> . . . ? and possessive pronouns Order of adjectives Pronouns <i>one</i> and <i>ones</i> Location expressions after pronouns and nouns 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Places where you keep things in your home Home furnishings for different rooms Things you keep in your room 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ask politely for permission to do things with <i>Do you mind . . . ?</i> Ask someone politely to do something with <i>Would you mind . . . ?</i> Agree to requests 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reduction of grammatical words
Unit 9 Things happen pages 85–94	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Tell anecdotes about things that went wrong Talk about accidents Respond to anecdotes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Past continuous statements Past continuous questions Reflexive pronouns 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Parts of the body Injuries 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> React to and comment on a story Respond with <i>I bet . . .</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Fall-rise intonation

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Unit 10 Communication pages 97–106	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Talk about different ways of communicating Compare ways of keeping in touch Manage phone conversations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Comparative adjectives <i>More, less, and fewer</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ways of communicating Adjectives Phone expressions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Interrupt and restart phone conversations Use <i>just</i> to soften things you say 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Linking
Unit 11 Appearances pages 107–116	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Describe people's appearances Identify people 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Questions and answers to describe people <i>have got</i> Phrases with verb + <i>-ing</i> and prepositions to identify people 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Adjectives and expressions to describe people's appearances 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Show you're trying to remember a word or name Use <i>You mean . . .</i> or <i>Do you mean . . . ?</i> to help someone remember something 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Checking information
Unit 12 Looking ahead pages 117–126	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Talk about the future Talk about plans and organizing events Discuss different jobs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Future with <i>will, may, and might</i> Present continuous and <i>going to</i> for the future Clauses with <i>if, when, after, and before</i> and the simple present to refer to the future 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Work, study, and life plans Occupations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Make offers and promises with <i>I'll</i> and <i>I won't</i> Agree to something with <i>All right</i> and <i>OK</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reduction of <i>will</i>

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Listening	Reading	Writing	Vocabulary notebook	Free talk
<p><i>It's good to travel.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Predict what people are going to say about traveling, and then listen for the exact words <p><i>Recommendations</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Match advice about staying at three unusual hotels with pictures; then listen to a radio show to check your answers 	<p><i>Somewhere different . . .</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> An article about three unusual hotels 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Write a postcard about staying at one of the hotels in the lesson Format and expressions for writing a postcard 	<p><i>Travel items</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> When you write down a new noun, write notes about it 	<p><i>Travel smart!</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Role play: Choose a role and give your partner travel advice according to the pictures
<p><i>Could I ask a favor?</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen to four conversations between roommates, complete their requests, and then check if each person agrees <p><i>Evening routines</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen to someone describe her evening routine, and number pictures in order 	<p><i>At home – How typical are you?</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> An article about home habits of typical Americans 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Write a short article about the evening routines of the people in your group Order events using sequencing words 	<p><i>The ABCs of home</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Write down a word for something in your home for each letter of the alphabet 	<p><i>All about home</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Group work: Discuss questions about your homes, and find out what you have in common
<p><i>Funny stories</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen to four anecdotes, and match each with a response <p><i>Happy endings</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen to two anecdotes, and answer questions about the details 	<p><i>Around town by Nelson Hunter</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A newspaper column featuring letters from readers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Write a letter to the newspaper column telling about something good that happened to you recently Link ideas with <i>when</i> and <i>while</i> 	<p><i>From head to toe</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Draw and label pictures to remember new vocabulary 	<p><i>What was happening?</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pair work: Look at a picture for one minute, and see how much detail you can remember about what was happening

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<p><i>Sorry about that!</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen to three phone conversations to infer the reason for each call and for each interruption <p><i>Text messaging</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen to someone talk about text messaging, and check the opinions she agrees with 	<p><i>C U L8R</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> An article about text messaging 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Write a short article on the advantages and disadvantages of a means of communication Structure of an article comparing advantages and disadvantages 	<p><i>Phone talk</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Learn new expressions by making note of the situations when you can use them 	<p><i>Which is better?</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pair work: Compare pairs of items, and discuss which is better and why
<p><i>Famous people</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen to descriptions of famous people, and match them with their photos <p><i>Next year's fashions</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen to a fashion editor answer questions about next year's styles, and fill in a chart 	<p><i>Baseball caps...not just for baseball players</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> An article about baseball caps and their uses 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Write a fashion article describing the current "look" Expressions to describe new trends 	<p><i>What do they look like?</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Use new vocabulary in true sentences about yourself or people you know 	<p><i>What's different?</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pair work: Ask and answer questions to determine what's different about people in two pictures, and guess where they went
<p><i>Promises, promises</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen to two people organizing a class reunion, and identify what each of them says they'll do <p><i>I can't wait!</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Listen to two people discussing predictions, and identify which person says each is a good idea and why 	<p><i>What will life be like in the future?</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> An article with predictions about the future 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Write an article about how one of the predictions will make our lives better or worse List ideas with <i>First</i>, <i>Second</i>, <i>Next</i>, and <i>Finally</i> 	<p><i>Things people do</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Write new vocabulary in groups by endings, meanings, or topics 	<p><i>I might do that.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Class activity: Interview classmates to find out about their future plans

Touchstone checkpoint Units 10–12 pages 127–128

Contents

Unit 1 Check-up	1.1 Basics p.4	Meeting and greeting people Using forms Following instructions	Verb <i>be</i> <i>I'm Danielle. I'm a technician.</i> Imperatives	Basic vocabulary: <i>say, write ...</i> Tools, fixings, electrical parts, occupations
	1.2 Letters and numbers p.6	Exchanging information Using forms Units of measurement	<i>How do you spell ...?</i>	Personal details Cardinal numbers Alphabet Abbreviations of units: <i>kg, m</i>
	1.3 Dates and times p.8	Using numbers Talking about travel timetables Making appointments	<i>LH three oh six. Monday the twenty-eighth of December.</i>	Ordinal numbers Dates and times Decimals
Unit 2 Parts (1)	2.1 Naming p.10	Identifying things	<i>What's that? I think it's a car. What's this called? this, that, these, those</i>	Parts: <i>wheel, axle, plate ...</i> Fixings: <i>nuts, bolts, nails ...</i> Vehicles: <i>car, bike, plane ...</i>
	2.2 Assembling p.12	Using checklists Saying what you need for a job Using an instruction manual	<i>I need some bolts. What size? Imperative + object + location: Put the wheel on the axle.</i>	Verbs: <i>loosen, tighten, push ...</i> Linear: <i>mm, mil, millimetre</i>
	2.3 Ordering p.14	Using voicemail Ordering by phone Introducing yourself and others	<i>How many do you need? What's your name? Please spell that.</i>	Numbers: <i>double 5, zero</i> Sizes: <i>small, medium, large</i> Colours: <i>red, blue, black ...</i>
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Unit 3 Parts (2)	3.1 Tools p.20	Describing components Using a product review	Present simple of <i>have</i> <i>My multi-tool has blades and a spanner.</i>	Tools: <i>spanner, (a pair of) pliers</i> Parts of tools: <i>shaft, blade, head ...</i>
	3.2 Functions p.22	Saying what things do Describing a product Talking about people's jobs	Present simple <i>What does this handle do? Where do you work?</i>	Verbs: <i>measure, grip, cut, open ...</i> Everyday tools: <i>torch, alarm ...</i> Occupations: <i>operator, technician ...</i>
	3.3 Locations p.24	Saying where things are	Adverbials and prepositions of location <i>Where is it? It's at the top.</i>	Location: <i>top, bottom, middle ...</i> Computer and electronic equipment
Unit 4 Movement	4.1 Directions p.26	Describing direction of movement	Adverbials of direction <i>can, can't, cannot Can a helicopter fly backwards? Yes, it can.</i>	Direction: <i>up, down, forwards ...</i> Adverbs: <i>straight, vertically</i> Angles: <i>degrees</i>
	4.2 Instructions p.28	Using an instruction manual	Imperative + present simple <i>Push the joystick upwards and the plane accelerates.</i>	Movement: <i>ascend, descend ...</i> Controls: <i>joystick, slider ...</i> Speed: <i>km/h, m/s</i>
	4.3 Actions p.30	Using an instruction manual Giving and following instructions Explaining what happens	<i>When</i> clause <i>When you pull the lever backwards, the truck reverses.</i>	Movement: <i>drive, reverse ...</i>
Review Unit B p.32				
Unit 5 Flow	5.1 Heating system p.36	Explaining how fluids move around a system Using a flow chart	Present simple <i>The water flows through the pipe into the tank.</i> Prepositions of movement	Parts of a fluid system: <i>inlet ...</i> Prepositions: <i>into, out of, to ...</i> Verbs: <i>enter, flow, sink ...</i>
	5.2 Electrical circuit p.38	Explaining how an electrical circuit works	Zero conditional <i>If the battery is empty, the current doesn't flow.</i>	Circuit: <i>battery, conductor ...</i> Electrical units: <i>ampere, watt</i>
	5.3 Cooling system p.40	Explaining how cooling systems work Describing everyday routine	Reference words: <i>here, it, this</i> Present simple in routines	Cooling system parts: <i>engine, fan ...</i> Temperature: <i>degrees Celsius</i>
Unit 6 Materials	6.1 Materials testing p.42	Giving a demonstration Explaining what you're doing	Present continuous <i>I'm stretching the rope.</i>	Verbs: <i>bend, cut, compress ...</i> Spelling: <i>strike/striking ...</i>
	6.2 Properties p.44	Describing the properties of materials	<i>What's it made of? You can't bend it, = It's rigid.</i>	Materials: <i>aluminium, graphite ...</i> Properties: <i>hard, rigid, tough ...</i>
	6.3 Buying p.46	Using a customer call form Buying and selling by phone Checking Starting a phone call	<i>What's your email address? Could you spell/repeat that? How many would you like?</i>	Email/Web addresses: <i>at, dot ...</i> Prices: <i>euro, dollar</i>
Review Unit C p.48				

Grammar summary p.100

Reference section p.106

Unit 7 Specifications	7.1 Dimensions p.52	Specifying dimensions Using a specifications chart	<i>How long is it? It's 9 mm long. The length of the road is 120 km.</i>	Bridge parts: <i>deck, pier, pylon</i> Adjectives/nouns: <i>long/length, high/height</i> Linear and weight: <i>mm, m, kg ...</i>
	7.2 Quantities p.54	Specifying materials Buying materials for a job Using a materials checklist	Countable and uncountable nouns <i>I'd like some paint, please.</i>	Substances: <i>glue, cement, oil ...</i> Containers: <i>tube, tin, bag ...</i> Area and volume: <i>m², m³, litre ...</i>
	7.3 Future projects p.56	Describing plans for the future Using a Gantt chart	<i>will, won't</i> Time expressions: <i>in 2015, at the end of 2015</i>	Verbs: <i>attach, complete, connect ...</i>
Unit 8 Reporting	8.1 Recent incidents p.58	Taking an emergency call Explaining what has happened Checking on progress	Present perfect <i>I've checked the brakes. Have you checked the tyres?</i>	Car repair: <i>brakes, exhaust pipe ...</i> Building site: <i>beam, bucket, digger ...</i>
	8.2 Damage and loss p.60	Reporting damage Dealing with a customer	Past participles as adjectives: <i>It's broken. They're dented. There are some scratches on the screen. There's no user manual.</i>	Electrical: <i>antenna, plug ...</i> Damage: <i>bent, broken, dented ...</i> Loss: <i>missing ...</i>
	8.3 Past events p.62	Discussing past events Phoning a repair shop	Past simple <i>They launched it in 2006. Time expressions: in 2008, on 5th October, fifty years ago ...</i>	Time: <i>today, yesterday, a week ago ...</i> Revision of dates and years <i>more than, less than</i>
Review Unit D p.64				
Unit 9 Troubleshooting	9.1 Operation p.68	Explaining how things work Explaining what things do	Revision of present simple <i>The handlebar steers the airboard.</i>	Verbs: <i>control, drive, press ...</i> Parts: <i>body, lever ...</i> Connections: <i>attached to, mounted on ...</i>
	9.2 Hotline p.70	Listening to an automated phone message Using a service hotline Taking a customer through a problem and solution	<i>Is the computer connected to the adapter?</i> Short answers: <i>Yes, I have. No, it doesn't. Yes, it is.</i>	Electronics and computing: <i>RF/SCART socket, router, modem ...</i> Connections: <i>connected to</i>
	9.3 User guide p.72	Using a flow chart Using a troubleshooting guide	Zero conditional + imperative <i>If it doesn't start, check the cable.</i>	Electronics: <i>LED, loose (cable) ...</i> Computing: <i>disk drive, printer ...</i> Car repair: <i>flat (battery) ...</i>
Unit 10 Safety	10.1 Rules and warnings p.74	Following safety rules Giving and following warnings Using safety signs	<i>could, might, must</i> <i>Always... Don't... You mustn't...</i> <i>You might trap your hand.</i>	Safety gear: <i>hard hat, gloves ...</i> Hazards: <i>poison, danger ...</i> Accidents: <i>hurt, injure, trap ...</i> Shapes: <i>circular, round ...</i>
	10.2 Safety hazards p.76	Giving and following warnings Noticing safety hazards Reporting safety hazards	Past tense of <i>be</i> <i>The fire exit was locked. There were no fire extinguishers.</i>	Hazard nouns: <i>gap, bare wire ...</i> Hazard adjectives: <i>coiled, damaged, locked ...</i> Safety: <i>fire exit, safety cone ...</i>
	10.3 Investigations p.78	Investigating an accident Reporting an accident Giving, accepting and turning down an invitation	Questions in the past simple <i>Where? When? How high? What? How far? How many?</i>	Nouns on a form: <i>position, altitude, distance ...</i>
Review Unit E p.80				
Unit 11 Cause and effect	11.1 Pistons and valves p.84	Expressing causation, permission and prevention Explaining how a four-stage cycle works	Verb constructions <i>cause, allow + to infinitive make, let + bare infinitive stop, prevent + from + gerund</i>	Hydraulics: <i>chamber, inlet, outlet ...</i>
	11.2 Switches and relays p.86	Explaining how a relay circuit works Giving an oral presentation	Further practice of verb patterns in 11.1	Electrical: <i>battery, buzzer, earth ...</i>
	11.3 Rotors and turbines p.88	Explaining how a wind turbine works Giving an oral presentation Making suggestions	Further practice of verb patterns in 11.1 Reference words: <i>it, one</i>	Turbines: <i>blade, brake, gear ...</i> Verbs: <i>drive, rotate, send ...</i>
Unit 12 Checking and confirming	12.1 Data p.90	Describing specifications Expressing approximation Checking that data is correct	Revision of question forms <i>Is that correct? No, that's wrong.</i>	Approximation: <i>about, over, at least ...</i> Nouns: <i>mass, rotation</i>
	12.2 Instructions p.92	Following spoken instructions Confirming actions Describing results of actions	Revision of imperative with present continuous	Revision of controls, vehicles, direction adverbs, verbs of movement
	12.3 Progress p.94	Describing maintenance work Checking progress with a Gantt chart	Revision of present perfect, past simple, present continuous, and <i>will</i>	Maintenance and repair: <i>check, inspect, assemble ...</i>
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Audio scrip'

Contents 1

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Appendix G2:

High Schools' English Materials of content

Contents			
Module	Topics	Grammar	Vocabulary
1 page 5 Success	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Career choices • Odd jobs • Millionaires • Job qualifications • Part-time jobs • School and academic subjects • Language learning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Present Perfect Simple - Present Perfect Progressive • Relative clauses • should - ought to - had better 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nouns describing occupation • Words easily confused • Collocations verb + noun • British English & American English
2 page 23 Science & Technology	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inventions • Transport • Experiments • The Internet • Gadgets • Virtual reality 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Future tenses • Other future forms • Time clauses • Conditional sentences (Type zero, 1, 2) • must - have to - need 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Verbs + prepositions • Nouns deriving from verbs • Adjectives ending in -able • Prefixes and suffixes • Expressions with the word 'and' • Prepositional phrases with 'in' and 'out of'
3 page 41 Leisure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Entertainment • Hobbies • Museums • Theme parks 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Infinitives and -ing forms • may - might - could • must - can't • Question tags 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Collocations with <i>get</i>, <i>go</i>, <i>have</i> and <i>take</i> • Words easily confused • Collective nouns • Adjectives + prepositions • Lexical sets (art galleries and museums)
4 page 59 Health & Fitness	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Health resorts • Health problems • Physical fitness • Sports • Food • Vegetarianism • Dreams 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reported Speech (Statements, questions, commands and requests) • Clauses of result 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Words easily confused • Expressions with the word 'with' • Nouns ending in -ness, -ure, -dom and -hood • Lexical set: food
5 page 77 Nature	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The environment • Pollution • Conservation • Eco-tourism • Animals • Natural disasters 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Passive Voice • Clauses of concession 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nouns ending in -ion and -ity • Words easily confused • Prepositional phrases • Nouns + prepositions • Compound nouns
6 Optional page 95 Modern life	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Shopping • The media • Life in the city/country 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Unreal past • Conditional sentences (Type 3) • Causative Form 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Words easily confused • Adjectives + prepositions • Expressions with 'take' • Idioms with colours • Collocations with 'put' and 'set'
7 Optional page 113 Places	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Travel • Holidays • Customs • Geography • History 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Past Simple - Past Progressive • Past Perfect Simple - Past Perfect Progressive • used to - would - was/were going to 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Words easily confused • Adjectives ending in -ed and -ing • Adjectives describing people and places • Adjectives deriving from verbs or nouns • Adverbs of manner
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Grammar Reference page 133		Appendix II page 149	

Reading	Listening	Speaking	Writing
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A magazine article: Odd Jobs • A magazine article: King Abdullah University of Science and Technology 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • People talking about jobs and job qualifications • A radio programme about a foreign language learning convention 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Choosing between options (which job to do) • Discussing part-time jobs • Discussing foreign language learning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A letter of application • An essay I
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A magazine article about flying cars • Four short texts about various uses of virtual reality 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • People talking in different situations • An interview with an expert talking about biometric passports 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Comparing photographs - Discussing science experiments • Speculating and making a decision (Choosing a suitable gift) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An article referring to a topic from a personal point of view • A letter based on prompts I (formal)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Advertisements for four theme parks • A magazine article about someone who has an unusual collection 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ten short conversations • People giving their views on art galleries 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Discussing different forms of entertainment • Choosing between options (Discussing the organisation of a community event) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An essay II • A review
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A magazine article about a visit to a spa • A magazine article: Fearless Explorer and Extraordinary Sportsman 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Five people giving their views on dreams • A radio programme about a vegetarian festival 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Helping solve a problem (Discussing possible solutions to a health problem) • Speculating and making a decision (Evaluating different ways of keeping fit) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A letter giving advice • A report
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A magazine article about cleaning up two polluted rivers • A brochure about the Columbus Zoo and Aquarium 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An interview with an expert talking about conservation work in Australia • A radio interview with a meteorologist about Hurricane Katrina 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Comparing photographs - Discussing environmental problems • Discussing natural disasters 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An e-mail based on prompts • A letter (to the editor) expressing an opinion
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Advertisements for shopping malls • A magazine article: Moving into a new life 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • People talking in different situations • A man being interviewed for a survey about stress 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Comparing photographs - Discussing shopping • Speculating and making a decision (The role of the media) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A letter based on prompts II (semi-formal) • An essay III (problem / solution)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A brochure: Ski Dubai • An extract from a novel 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ten short conversations • An interview with someone who has been on a trekking holiday in South America 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Helping solve a problem concerning types of holidays • Speculating and making a decision (What can spoil a holiday) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An article describing a place • A story

الدروس الغير مقررة على مدارس تحفيظ القرآن الكريم

The omitted lessons for Quran Memorization schools:

- 1a (reading / vocabulary & grammar / listening & speaking / writing)
- 1b (reading / vocabulary & grammar / listening & speaking / writing)
- 1 round-up
- Module 4
- 5b (listening & speaking / vocabulary & grammar / writing)

- 5 round-up
- Module 7
- Culture pages
- Self-assessment
- Projects